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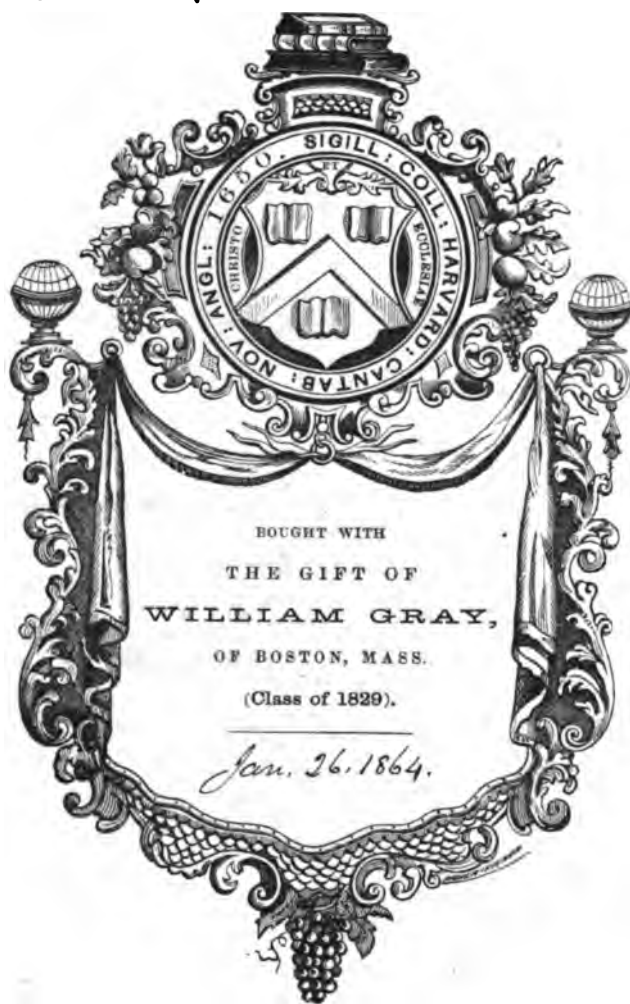
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ANNALS
OF
BRITISH LEGISLATION:

KING

**A CLASSIFIED AND ANALYSED SUMMARY OF PUBLIC BILLS, STATUTES,
ACCOUNTS AND PAPERS, REPORTS OF COMMITTEES AND OF COMMISSIONERS, AND OF SESSIONAL
PAPERS GENERALLY, OF
THE HOUSES OF LORDS AND COMMONS.**

EDITED BY

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P R E F A C E.

THE documents inserted in the first of our Series, that of "Finance, Commerce, and Manufactures," give the best possible evidence of the continuous progress of the United Kingdom in wealth and prosperity. The leading sources of Revenue are made more and more productive. Commerce is fast augmenting in amount and ramifications, and the savings of the people are yearly increasing. The Report of the Commissioners of Inland Revenue shows a large increase of the Excise Revenue, and of the Property and Income Tax. From a return of the gross amount of property assessed in the United Kingdom under this tax, it appears that it has increased within eighteen years from 251,000,000*l.* in 1843 to 329,000,000*l.* in 1861, being at the rate of 4,500,000*l.* per annum; whilst, during the same period, the capital held by Savings Banks has increased from 27,000,000*l.* in 1843 to 39,000,000*l.* in 1859. A most valuable table will also be found under this series of the total Income and Expenditure in each year from 1829 to 1860, as estimated in the Budgets and as actually realized. The near approach made in the estimates shows the forethought and calculating power of our Chancellors of the Exchequer. In proportion as the economical position of the country becomes better known, and our statistical organization is perfected, so our financial measures acquire certainty and exactitude. With the return of the quantity of paper charged

with duty, there is a memorandum on the materials used in the manufacture of paper, indicating the essential requisites to the successful introduction of any substitute.

In the documents inserted under Series B, "Diplomacy and War," we find the action of Diplomacy directed to both hemispheres. We have a continuation of the facts and circumstances connected with those most interesting episodes in the history of Italy, whereby the Government of Victor Emanuel was extended over Tuscany, Parma, Modena, and the Romagna, the romantic landing of Garibaldi in Sicily, and the fall of the Bourbon King. A correspondence is inserted relating to the opening of political and commercial relations with Japan, which has been attended with considerable difficulties, in consequence of the jealousy of the Japanese, and of the unscrupulous conduct of the European traders in that country, who endeavoured to take advantage of the imperfect state of the Japanese currency. The correspondence respecting Central America and the Mosquito Islands, and the treaty with the Republic of Nicaragua carry us far away to quite a different field of diplomacy. Under this Series, also, there are inserted the reports and correspondence on the Slave Trade, which shows that that inhuman traffic is still extensively carried on. The Policy of the French Government in sending vessels to obtain slaves under the pretext of recruiting labourers, gave a temporary encouragement to the trade, but it is gratifying to find that the French Government has at last withdrawn from this doubtful policy.

The principal document under Series C, "Ecclesiastical Affairs and Education," is the report of the Committee of the House of Commons on the expediency of opening in the evening the British Museum, the National Gallery, and kindred institutions,

as means for promoting the healthful recreation and improvement of the people. The Report and evidence contain many facts of interest in connection with such museums and institutions. The Report on Military education shows the steps taken to improve Military education by the organization of a Royal Military College and the institution of examinations for the grant of commissions in the army. The Report of the Department of Science and Art indicates the means used for affording aid to the industrial classes, and for stimulating a taste for the fine arts throughout the country. We have also inserted a valuable Report of Dr. Lankester, on the relation of the Animal and Food Collections to the other Natural History Museum, maintained by Her Majesty's Government, as well as on the collection of food products, and on the collection of animal products.

Series D, "Railway, Shipping, and Postal Communication," contains the Report of the Committee of the House of Commons on the state of Merchant Shipping. The Report shows the effect of the repeal of the Navigation Law in 1849, and the restrictions still in force in foreign countries, some of which have failed to grant to British shipping that freedom which their shipping obtain in this country. The Committee recommended that efforts should be made to secure these advantages by diplomatic negotiation. The Committee inquired also upon the Liability of Shipowners, the System of Pilotage, Light Dues, Passing Tolls, Shipping Offices, and more particularly on the question of belligerent rights at sea, examining the effect of the Declaration of Paris in 1856, which granted protection to neutral vessels, but left the private property of belligerents at sea still exposed to capture.

Under Series E, "Justice and Crime," there is a Report of the International Statistical Congress on Civil and Criminal Judicial Statistics, and on the Statistics of the Subdivisions, Transfers, and Burdens of Real Property; and a Report of the Commissioners on the Process, Practice, and System of Pleading in the Superior Courts of Westminster, being the completion of the labours of that Commission which, since 1850, has introduced so many wholesome reforms in our civil procedure.

Under Series F, "British India, Colonies, and Dependencies," we have the Report on Railways in India, which gives the conditions for the pecuniary assistance given by Government to railway companies. The great advantage of constructing railways in that vast empire, and the risk and difficulties attending such undertakings in that country, have rendered it necessary for the Government to guarantee a certain rate of interest upon the capital expended. In the comparative table of the extent, cost, and traffic of Railways in different countries, it will be seen that whilst in the United Kingdom the cost per mile was upwards of 35,000*l.*, in India it was only about 9,000*l.* The papers relative to the affairs in New Zealand account for the unhappy differences in that Colony between the natives and the English; and in connection with this, we call the special attention of our readers to the interesting Memoirs of Dr. Thomson on the State and Progress of Civilization among the Maori, and to the table showing the state of the New Zealanders in the years 1770, 1836, and 1856. The Reports on the Present State of Her Majesty's Colonies for 1858, gives the fullest information on the extent, population, expenditure, trade, shipping, and productions of each Colony and Possession.

Series G, "Population, Municipal, and Parliamentary," has the Reports of the Poor Law Boards, in which there will be found some valuable facts, showing the ratio of pauperism to the population and wealth of the country, as well as a comparison of the state of pauperism in England, Ireland and Scotland.

Series H, "Health, Inclosures, &c.," contains a Report of the Commissioners in Lunacy for Scotland, and an abstract of several Bills on Medical Practice, and on other kindred subjects.

The Acts of Parliament for the Session have also been distributed under the Eight Series in which the work is divided, distinguishing those for the United Kingdom, Great Britain and Ireland, England and Wales, Scotland, and Ireland. And thus we conclude this tenth volume of the "Annals of British Legislation."

LEONE LEVI.

10, *Farrars Building, Temple,*
April, 1862.

ANNALS OF BRITISH LEGISLATION.

SERIES B. FINANCE, COMMERCE, AND AGRICULTURE.

DIPLOMATIC SERVICE.

Report of the Select Committee of the House of Commons appointed to inquire into the Constitution and Efficiency of the present Diplomatic Service of the Country.

THE Committee was appointed on the 8th of March, 1861, and on the 15th March it was nominated as follows:—Lord John Russell, Mr. Disraeli, the Judge Advocate, Lord Stanley, Lord Harry Vane, Mr. Fitzgerald, Mr. Layard, Sir James Ferguson, Sir John Acton, Sir Minto Farquhar, Mr. Hankey, Mr. Hope, Mr. Grant Duff, Mr. Monckton Milnes, and Lord Claud Hamilton. On the 26th April, Sir James Ferguson was discharged, and Mr. Cochrane added to the Committee. The Committee sat eighteen days, and examined the following witnesses:—Mr. Edmund Hammond, Permanent Under-Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs; Lord Wodehouse, Under-Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs; the Earl of Clarendon, Sir Andrew Buchanan, Minister Plenipotentiary at the Hague; Sir John Crampton, late Ambassador in St. Petersburg and Brussels; the Hon. Henry Elliott, late Minister at Copenhagen and Naples; Viscount Stratford de Redcliffe, late Minister in Constantinople; the Hon. William Stuart, late Minister at Rio Janeiro; the Earl of Malmesbury; Mr. Ralph A. Earle, late paid Attaché to the Embassy at Vienna; the Right Hon. Sir G. Hamilton Seymour, late Chargé d’Affaires at Frankfort; Mr. Horace Rumbold, Secretary of Legation in China; the Right Hon. the Earl Cowley, G.C.B., Ambassador at Paris; Mr. George Strachey, Paid Attaché at the Hague; Mr. John Gorham Maitland, Secretary to the Civil Service Commissioners; Mr. Theodore Walrond, Permanent Examiner in the Civil Service Commission; Mr. George Lenox Conyngham, Chief Clerk in the Foreign Office; Colonel Charles Townley, Queen’s Messenger; the Hon. Charles Spring Rice, Senior Clerk, Foreign Office; Mr. Percy Mitford, Unpaid Attaché at Brussels; Mr. Sidney Locock, First Paid Attaché at St. Petersburg; the Hon. Julian Fane, Permanent Secretary at the Embassy at Vienna; and the Right Hon. Lord John Russell, Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs.

On the 23rd July, 1861, the Committee reported as follows :—

Having examined witnesses of all ranks in the diplomatic service, and several persons who have filled high office in connection with the administration of the Department of Foreign Affairs, and having had the advantage of the reports on the diplomatic services of other countries, and of the opinions of the principal agents of the Government abroad, transmitted to the Foreign Office in answer to the circular despatch of the 25th August, 1860, your Committee have agreed to make the following recommendations to the House :—

1. That there be two classes of examination previous to admission into the service—a first and second—the candidate selecting which he will undergo ; if he pass the first he will be exempted from any further examination.

2. That the attachéship shall, for the future, be regarded as a probationary period of four years at the most, six months of which shall be spent in the duties of the Foreign Office.

3. That at the expiration of his attachéship, if his character and conduct are approved by the Minister under whom he has been placed, the attaché shall be nominated secretary of a certain class, and be paid as such. It is understood that a commission be issued to every member of the diplomatic service on his first appointment as secretary, so as to give him a claim to calculate his pension from that date.

4. That exchanges between members of the diplomatic body and clerks in the Foreign Office should be allowed, under the sanction of the Secretary of State.

5. That the present regulations, with regard to leave of absence of ambassadors and ministers, appear to press upon them with undue severity, and that the attention of the Secretary of State may be advantageously directed to this subject.

6. That, whenever it is practicable and fit, a residence for a term of years should be secured for the British embassy or mission. The rent and repairs to be defrayed at the public expense.

7. That the attention of the Secretary of State be directed to the salaries and allowances of the larger missions, with the view of considering whether they are adequate to meet the greatly increased expenditure of living at the principal European capitals.

The following items are gathered from the evidence :—

Age of Appointment.—Mr. Hammond was of opinion that the attachés are sent abroad too young, and that they should not go until they are 21 or 22 years of age ; although he did not think that a man is in much greater danger in Paris or Vienna at the age of 19 than he is in London. Lord Wodehouse was of the same opinion ; he thought the superior limit of age for entering the service should be fixed at 25. Sir A. Buchanan concurred in this. Lord Malmesbury thought the age for entering the service might be from 18 to 23 or 24. Lord Cowley said that attachés should not leave this country under 20 years of age.

Appointments to the Service.—Mr. Hammond said that it is expedient to treat the diplomatic service as a profession—a profession into which people may be introduced who have not been regularly trained up to it. Nothing would be more injurious to the public interests than to lay down any definite rule by which a Secretary of State should be precluded from appointing to an embassy or mission, or to any special diplomatic service, a person who has not been brought up in the diplomatic profession. For the heads of missions the Secretary of State should not be confined to the service. Vacancies in the Foreign Office are very few ; they do not exceed two or three a year. Lord Wodehouse approved of the system of a list of unpaid attachéships, to be filled up, as vacancies occur, from a list of applications. He was of opinion that posts up to the rank of secretary should be confined to persons in the service, but for the higher posts any one out of the service might be selected. Lord Clarendon stated that he made no appointment where he believed the young men intended to withdraw from the profession after a time. The applications are generally from the upper classes. In former times, it was customary for the ambassadors to select their own attachés.

Attachés.—An opinion having been expressed that too large a number had been of late appointed by Lord Malmesbury, his lordship said that he appointed no more than were required. The proportion, in 1861, was 37 paid attachés to 44 unpaid. The number of attachés varies from time to time. Mr. Hammond was of opinion that the attachés should commence at the less agreeable mission, and rise up to the more agreeable. A young man, on entering the profession, should not commence with the best place, but should go gradually through different places; and if Paris is the best, he should go to Paris in his turn. Lord Wodehouse, on the contrary, thought it would be better that attachés should commence at the larger Courts rather than at the smaller ones. There is a probation of three months in the Foreign Office before an attaché enters upon his duties. Lord Malmesbury was of opinion that there should be an unpaid probationary period of one year, besides the three months at the Foreign Office. Mr. Strachey suggested that the heads of missions should make reports on the progress and conduct of such attachés during their probationary service. Other witnesses suggested a longer time to be spent at the Foreign Office. Mr. Hammond objected to any rule that the junior members of a mission should be treated by the head of the mission as part of his family. It was the practice formerly for the attachés to live with the heads of missions, and to be looked upon as part of the family. Lord Stratford de Redcliffe treated the attachés as part of his own family. Mr. Hammond said that it would be of advantage to the public service if attachés had opportunities for going into the best society, but they are generally disinclined to do so. Mr. Hammond considered it expedient that attachés should be partly supported by their families until they rise in the service. From 400*l.* to 600*l.* a year is as little as an attaché can properly live upon, except at some minor Courts. Including private means, our attachés should have 500*l.* or 600*l.* a year. On an average, four years is the period for which an attaché remains without a salary, and in some cases a much longer time. It was suggested that paid attachés should be termed first, second, and third secretaries, and receive commissions as such.

China, Japan, &c.—The mode of nomination and examination, in the case of the student interpreters in China and Japan, was detailed by Mr. Hammond as follows:—

First day, Latin and Greek; second day, English history and literature; third day, translation from French and English, and from English into French; translation from German into English, and from English into German; fourth day, a paper of general questions in modern history down to 1789; a paper of much more minute questions on the period from 1789 to our own times; fifth day, an English essay, *précis* writing; sixth day, a *visé voce* examination partly conducted in French and German, and in the course of which a candidate should be permitted to show his proficiency in any other language with which he was acquainted. The object of the *visé voce* examination should be to test whether the candidate had travelled pretty extensively, and had made an intelligent use of his time while travelling. A mixed paper of questions on Roman and international law.

The system of appointing them was formally introduced in 1854, when a communication was made by Lord Clarendon to the London University, King's College, and I think two or three colleges in Ireland, giving them a nomination each of one student, to go to China to learn the Chinese language. There was no public examination then; what was done in that respect was done in the colleges themselves; from that time to the present, such student interpreters have either been obtained from King's College, where they have been, I presume, examined, and given satisfaction to the principal of King's College, or they have been obtained on the nomination of the Secretary of State, exercising his own discretion as in the case of attachés. In no case, till the passing of the late Superannuation Act, was there any public examination of students sent to China or to Japan, or Siam; but since the passing of the Superannuation Act, which renders it necessary that a person entering into the Civil Service should obtain a certificate from the Civil Service Commissioners, persons so appointed have

been, or will be examined before the Civil Service Commissioners. At the present time, I think that we have two student interpreters in Japan, who have been examined before them. Lord John Russell has opened the appointment of students to modified competition before the Civil Service Commissioners, and six student interpreters will at once be appointed in China and two in Japan. With reference to those appointments, Lord John Russell has given to King's College, out of consideration for the service they have been to us in giving us some very good men, six nominations; he has also given three to Cambridge, three to Oxford, three to the University College of London, and three to Wellington College, and we have a few on our own list; altogether, it is contemplated, although there may be alterations, that there should be twenty-four competitors for these eight places, adopting pretty nearly the principle of the Foreign Office, where we send three competitors in for a clerkship. They will be examined in certain things, which we consider sufficient to test their ability to learn hereafter; and this time we have been obliged to extend the age, out of consideration for certain students of King's College, who had been expecting to get appointed, and probably would have been appointed, if we had been able to make those appointments during the war; but it having been thought inexpedient to increase our establishment, until we really saw what we wanted, some of those students got beyond the age of twenty, and Lord John Russell thought that it would be hard upon them to debar them from their chance of getting appointed, so that the age for this time has been extended to twenty-five years. Hereafter, these appointments will be limited to the age of between sixteen and twenty. We think that it is desirable that a person going to China for the purpose of studying the language, and also going to Japan for the same purpose, should not have passed beyond the age of twenty; and his examination in this country is directed to ascertaining that he has had a liberal education, and that he is intelligent and capable of putting his thoughts upon paper in a way which gives promise of future advancement in his studies of languages. These appointments are not diplomatic appointments, they are intended for the consular service.

Consular Service.—Mr. Hammond considered it inexpedient for consuls to become diplomatic servants, though their instructions often are to communicate upon political as well as upon commercial subjects. The consuls should as far as possible communicate through the heads of the mission. On the 2nd of May, 1861, Lord John Russell issued a circular to consuls, informing them that the consular service is in all cases subordinate to the diplomatic service, and that it is their duty to keep her Majesty's representative under whose control they are placed fully informed on all matters, political as well as commercial, which may come under their observation; and that they should furnish him, simultaneously with the despatch of the originals, with copies of all despatches, except merely formal returns, which they may address to the Foreign Office.

Cost.—For the diplomatic service and for pensions the sum spent is 180,000*l*. Within the last few years there has been a margin of about 10,000*l*.

Education for the Service.—Mr. Hammond stated that there is a decided advantage in attachés having passed through a university or public school, though this should not obviate an examination for the service. Lord Wodehouse considered it better that they should be educated at home. Sir A. Buchanan and Lord Malmesbury thought that a university degree should be allowed to qualify instead of a Civil Service examination. The study of the French language is more important than any other. Lord Cowley attached very little importance to university education as a test of fitness for the service.

Examinations.—There was not formerly any inquiry into the qualifications of those appointed to the diplomatic service. Lord Clarendon first introduced the examination. The following is a sketch of the examination as given by Mr. Walrond:—

REGULATIONS for the EXAMINATION of PAID ATTACHÉS, before the CIVIL SERVICE COMMISSIONERS, as approved by Lord J. Russell, August, 1859.

All persons promoted from unpaid to paid attachéships, before they are confirmed in their new office, will be required, if in England at the time of their promotion, or within one

month after their arrival in England, to submit themselves for examination by the commissioners, in order to ascertain:—

1. That they can speak and write the languages of the several countries in which they have resided since their first appointment as unpaid attachés; but in this examination the length of time during which candidates may have resided in the several countries, and also the comparative difficulty of acquiring the languages of such countries, will be taken into account. Candidates who have previously resided only in France or in the United States, will be required to satisfy the examiners of their proficiency in one other language besides French.

2. Candidates, on being examined on promotion, will be required to draw up a report on the general commercial and political relations of the several countries in which they may have resided; on the internal polity, and the administration and social institutions of such countries, and on the character of their people. These reports, however, must not refer to current political affairs, and they must be sent, in the first instance, to the Foreign Office, from which they will be forwarded to the commissioners.

3. Candidates, on being examined on promotion, will further be required to satisfy the commissioners that they possess such a knowledge of international law as can be acquired from *Wheaton's Elements of International Law* and *Wheaton's History of International Law*.

REGULATIONS for the EXAMINATION of UNPAID ATTACHÉS, before the CIVIL SERVICE COMMISSIONERS, as approved by Lord J. RUSSELL, August, 1859.

The examination will be directed to ascertain:—1. That they can write a good bold hand, with distinctly formed letters. 2. That they can write English and French quickly and correctly from dictation. 3. That they understand French well; that they can make an accurate and good translation of any French paper into English, and of any English paper into French; and that they can speak French with tolerable ease and correctness. 4. That they can make an accurate and good translation into English of a paper written either in German, Latin, Spanish, or Italian; the choice of the language being left to the candidates. 5. That they have a general knowledge of geography. 6. That they can make a clear and correct *précis* or abstract, in the form of a narrative, of any collection of papers placed in their hands. 7. That they have a general knowledge of modern history since the year 1789, and especially of the history of the country to which they are about to proceed, as regards its internal constitution and its relation to other powers. For the convenience of candidates it has been settled that as regards modern history generally, they will be examined in so much of *Heeren's Historical Manual of the Political System of Europe and its Colonies* as treats of history from the year 1789, and also in the fourth volume of *Russell's Modern Europe* (last edition); and as regards any particular country to which they may be about to proceed, they will be examined in so much of *Mculloch's Geographical Dictionary* as relates to that country.

Persons nominated as unpaid attachés to any of her Majesty's missions are to understand that they are not necessarily to proceed to the particular post mentioned in their letter of nomination; but, after they have passed their examination, and worked for a certain time at the Foreign Office, in order that they may become acquainted with the forms of business as carried on there, they will be sent to any post to which the Secretary of State may think it most convenient for the public service to send them. Moreover, the nomination of all persons as unpaid attachés will be cancelled, unless they present themselves at the Foreign Office, ready for their examination, within a month from the date of their nomination. Limit of age for candidates, eighteen to twenty-five, both years inclusive.

The examinations have been as follows:—Of unpaid attachés, in 1856, 9 were nominated, 5 certificated, and 3 rejected; in 1857, 13 were nominated, 9 certificated, and 5 rejected; in 1858, 19 were nominated, 13 certificated, 4 rejected, and 1 declined; in 1859, 20 were nominated, 10 certificated, and 5 rejected; in 1860, 2 were nominated, 1 certificated, and 1 rejected; in 1861 (five months) there have been no nominations; making in all 63 nominated, 44 certificated, 18 rejected, and 1 who declined. The latest certificate is dated April, 1860, and the latest rejection March, 1860.

Foreign Office.—Mr. Hammond is the channel through which certain orders of the Secretary of State are conveyed to the diplomatic service, and for executing the orders of the Secretary of State in regard to any instructions that he has to give to the diplomatic servants abroad, and he signs such letters as are not usually signed by the Secretary of State. All communications except those of an essentially private nature between the diplomatic servants abroad and the foreign Minister pass through the

hands of one or the other of the Under Secretaries of State, who divide them into two portions. In 1858, a third Under Secretary was appointed, so there are one political office and two permanent ones. The business of the Foreign Office was described in a memorandum as follows :—

The staff of the Foreign Office consists of a Secretary of State, two Under Secretaries of State, one of whom is a permanent officer, while the other is changeable with each successive administration, an assistant Under Secretary of State, who is also a permanent officer, and clerks in their several classes, and with their several attributes as now to be described. I. A chief clerk who, under the general control of one or other of the Under Secretaries of State, though mainly under that of the permanent one, looks to all matters connected with the general and financial affairs of the office, and, among other details, prepares the commissions of consuls, and controls the issue of passports, but he takes no part either in the political or commercial business of the office. II. Eight senior clerks, each managing a separate division of the office, one of whom superintends the correspondence with her Majesty's consuls, with the exception of those in China, Japan, and Siam; another superintends the slave trade correspondence, and the remaining six the political and commercial correspondence of their respective divisions. III. Eight assistant clerks, of whom one is attached to each of the divisions, and whose duty is more immediately to assist the senior clerk, and to act for him in his absence. IV. Twenty-five junior clerks, who are assigned in nearly equal proportions to each of the divisions. These forty-one clerks carry on the general correspondence, foreign as well as domestic, of the office; but there are also other departments in the office composed as follows, viz. :—Librarian, sub-librarian, and five clerks; superintendent in the treaty department, assistant, and one clerk; three clerks attached to the chief clerk's department; a translator and a financial clerk, in the consular division. The system pursued in each of the eight divisions, which it is the object of this memorandum more particularly to explain, is the same. Each division attends to the whole of the correspondence, except that relating to consular matters, and to the slave trade, which is carried on exclusively by the consular or slave trade divisions, connected with the countries allotted to it, whether that correspondence is carried on with British diplomatic agents employed abroad, or with the Ministers of foreign Powers accredited to the British Government, or with the different departments of the Government, or with individuals. The description, therefore, of the process in one division will do for all.

To begin, then, with the receipt of letters in the office. Four clerks have apartments in the office, with fire and lights found them in addition to their salary; one of whom in turn attends to the receipt and despatch of telegrams out of office hours, opens the despatches which arrive between the time of the office being closed in the evening and eleven or twelve o'clock the following morning; notes on the dockets of the despatches the date of their receipt, and then sends them in locked boxes to the private residence of one or other of the Under Secretaries of State, who, after having read them, sends them on to the Secretary of State.

The Secretary of State on reading the despatches gives such directions upon them as they appear to him to require, and returns them to the Under Secretary of State, from whom he received them, who, after making himself acquainted with the directions of the Secretary of State, sends the despatches to the senior clerk of the division under whose superintendence the correspondence of the country from which they come is placed.

The despatches are then immediately registered in a diary divided into countries, which is kept in each division, and that being done, the directions given by the Secretary of State are executed under the superintendence and responsibility of the senior clerk, who distributes the work as he sees fit among the junior clerks in the division. Copies are made of such of them as should be communicated to other Ministers abroad, or to the different departments at home; drafts of answers are prepared, or of letters to parties whose applications for interference or information are reported on; notice is given to the senior clerks of the other divisions of despatches, of which they should have copies made in order to send abroad; for as a general rule the head of each division ought to know in the course of the day whether certain despatches have arrived, or have been sent off, which should be communicated to her Majesty's Ministers in the countries under their several superintendence.

As regards despatches or letters which may arrive in the course of the day, either from abroad, or from foreign Ministers, or from public departments, or from private individuals, a similar course is pursued, with the exception that domestic letters are generally brought unopened to one of the Under Secretaries of State, who sends them, after having opened and read them if he sees fit to do so, into the proper division, from whence they are returned, when docketed and registered, to the Under Secretary of State, to be forwarded by him to the Secretary of State, or otherwise disposed of.

When the drafts of despatches or letters have been prepared, they are submitted by the senior clerk to the Under Secretary of State, who sees that they are properly written, and if they relate to matters of no great importance, approves them at once, and returns them

to the senior clerk, or in the contrary case, forwards them to the Secretary of State for his approval; and when they are returned by the latter, they are sent back to the division to be written out for the signature either of the Secretary of State, or of the Under Secretary of State, as the case may be. When written out, they are given to the Under Secretary of State for his signature, or for that of the Secretary of State, and they then go back to the senior clerk, who is responsible for their being duly despatched by messenger, or by post, or otherwise.

In mere matters of detail, the senior clerk sometimes does not trouble the Under Secretary of State with a draft of a letter, but submits it at once to him for signature, being responsible to him for the terms of the answer being correct; but, as a general rule, no official letter, however trifling, should be sent out of the office without an exact copy being kept of it.

When the despatch or letter is sent off, the draft or copy of it is docketed and registered in the same diary that the letter to which it is an answer is entered in; the letters received being entered on the left-hand page, while those sent are entered on the right-hand page. The paper is then put by into the press, according to its country, unless in the case of important despatches which are circulated to the Cabinet Ministers, as will hereafter be explained.

The work is carried on very quickly, and no formal difficulties exist to occasion delay; very frequently despatches are received and answered, and disposed of in one and the same day, and, in fact, in ordinary circumstances, despatches or letters received in the several divisions are disposed of, one way or the other, in two or three days after their arrival; they are either answered or communicated to other public departments, or to interested parties; of course, there are exceptions to this rule in regard to matters which require consideration, and previous communication with the sovereign or the cabinet. It is not generally the practice to draw up memoranda or detailed observations on the despatches which come in, such a practice tending to occasion delay. The papers are retained in each division, unbound, for about eighteen months or two years. They are then handed over to the librarian, who causes them to be arranged for binding; the despatches received, and those sent, being bound in separate volumes, while the departmental, and letters from individuals, with their answers, are bound up indiscriminately in other volumes. When the correspondence is bound, it remains in charge of the librarian, who has a fresh register made of the contents of the volumes, somewhat more detailed than the divisional diaries, and this register is again indexed according to persons and subjects. By these arrangements we can very quickly refer to the correspondence even of some years standing, and get at the papers which it is desired to consult in a very short space of time. When a detailed report on a matter which may have occurred some years back is required, the librarian prepares it. If the question has its origin within fifteen years, the senior clerk of the division either draws up the memorandum himself, or desires one of his subordinates to do so, being still himself responsible for its correctness. There is a special department in the office, called the Treaty Department, in which the drafts of treaties, and everything connected with them in all the stages of a negotiation carried on in this country, are prepared. The senior clerk of each division should, however, be kept acquainted with any treaty in negotiation with a country under his superintendence. There is a private printing establishment in the office, and also one for book-binding, so that everything required for carrying on the business is concentrated under the same roof.

It has been stated that the work of the office is placed under the control of one or other of the Under Secretaries of State. It remains to be shown how each of them keeps himself acquainted with the correspondence specially under the superintendence of the other. Except on questions of a peculiar interest, or of a difficult character, one Under Secretary of State does not usually trouble himself with the domestic correspondence which belongs to the countries assigned to the other. But as regards the correspondence with her Majesty's Ministers abroad the matter is thus arranged. No allusion has hitherto been made, while tracing a paper from its entrance into the office to its consignment to the press of the division to which it belongs, to the manner in which despatches from and to her Majesty's Ministers abroad are communicated to the Queen, or to the Cabinet Ministers. But this is the process. When the Secretary of State has given his directions on the despatches which arrive from abroad, or has not seen occasion to give orders, the despatches, and in matters of importance the drafts of answers, when approved by the Secretary of State, are sent by the senior clerk of the division to the Prime Minister first, and then to the Queen (in case of important drafts for her Majesty's approval previously to their being sent off); and they are afterwards circulated among the Cabinet Ministers. But the boxes, on their way to the Prime Minister, ought to pass, in the first instance, through the hands of the Under Secretary of State, under whose direct superintendence the correspondence of the several countries is not placed, and he thus is enabled to make himself acquainted with matters of political interest recorded in that correspondence. As regards the discipline of the office, the nominal hours of attendance are, as in other offices, six. The office, however, does not close, nor are the clerks released from attendance, till the work required, whatever may be its amount, is completed, and consequently, the clerks, or some of them, very often do not get away till seven or eight o'clock, or even later. As a general rule, no junior clerk leaves the office without permission of the senior of his division, while the latter does not himself go away without

first ascertaining that the Under Secretary of State no longer requires his attendance. The clerks are allowed two months vacation in the course of the year, and they settle among themselves, and with the assent of the senior clerks in the respective divisions, and the sanction of one of the Under Secretaries of State, at what time they shall take their leaves. We are not, however, very particular as to occasional absences for a few days; we tax the clerks at times very severely, and therefore we are not very strict in other matters; but in no case can a clerk absent himself without permission previously obtained either from a senior clerk, or from one of the Under Secretaries of State. The great object is to keep up a feeling of good fellowship among the clerks themselves, and zeal for the proper conduct of the business. There is no mystery observed in the distribution of the business; implicit reliance is placed on the honour and discretion of every clerk; and no hesitation is shown by any of the clerks, however high their standing in the office may be, to assist in case of emergency in carrying on any part, however trifling, of the business of the office. This paper has only been designed to show generally the manner in which the every-day work of the Foreign Office is performed; and therefore no detailed account is given of the manner in which the business of the chief clerks, or of the librarians, or treaty, or translator's department is carried on, and no detailed particulars of the matters coming within the special province of each of those departments.

Salaries.—Mr. Hammond said that it will be necessary in many instances to increase the salaries of our diplomatic servants. The pay of Ministers abroad, and of secretaries of legation, are now, in many cases, quite inadequate, as the cost of necessaries and comforts of life have greatly increased. The scale of salaries was fixed thirty or forty years ago, and it was fair with reference to the prices of necessaries and comforts, and even the luxuries of life; but there is no part of Europe, or America either, in which the prices of all those things have not risen from 40 to 60 or 70 per cent. In Copenhagen, for instance, the price of corn had risen in twenty years 60 per cent., and almost all the other necessaries of life from 25 to 45 per cent. In Madrid is the same. The expense in St. Petersburg is considerable. As compared with other countries, our diplomatic officers are well paid. The English diplomatic corps receive probably more than the foreign corps, but more is required of them.

FORMS OF DIPLOMATIC COMMISSIONS, &c.

FORM OF FULL POWER for carrying on NEGOTIATIONS, and signing a TREATY with a FOREIGN POWER.

VICTORIA R.

VICTORIA, by the Grace of God, Queen of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, Defender of the Faith, &c. &c. &c. To all and singular to whom these presents shall come, greeting!

Whereas, for the better treating of and arranging certain matters which are now in discussion, or which may come into discussion between Us and _____, We have judged it expedient to invest a fit person with full power to conduct the said discussion on our part: know ye, therefore, that We, reposing especial trust and confidence in the wisdom, loyalty, diligence, and circumspection of [name and titles], have named, made, constituted, and appointed, as We do by these presents name, make, constitute, and appoint him our undoubted commissioner, procurator, and plenipotentiary: giving to him all manner of power and authority to treat, adjust, and conclude with such minister or ministers as may be vested with similar power and authority on the part of _____ any treaties, conventions, or agreements that may tend to the attainment of the above-mentioned end, and to sign for Us and in our name, everything so agreed upon and concluded, and to do and transact all such other matters as may appertain to the finishing of the aforesaid work, in as ample manner and form, and with equal force and efficacy as we ourselves could do if personally present, engaging and promising upon Our Royal word, that whatever things shall be so transacted and concluded by Our said commissioner, procurator, and plenipotentiary, shall be agreed to, acknowledged, and accepted by Us in the fullest manner, and that We will never suffer, either in the whole or in part, any person whatsoever, to infringe the same or act contrary thereto as far as it lies in Our power.

In witness whereof, We have caused the Great Seal of Our United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland to be affixed to these presents, which We have signed with Our Royal Hand.

Given at Our Court at _____, the _____ day of _____, in the year of Our Lord One thousand eight hundred and _____, and in the _____ year of Our reign.

[S]

FORM of a CREDENTIAL LETTER addressed to a SOVEREIGN.

SIR, MY BROTHER,—Being desirous to maintain without interruption the relations of friendship and good understanding which happily subsist between the two Crowns, I have made choice of [*name and titles*] to reside at the Court of Your Imperial Majesty in the character of my Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary. The long experience which I have had of your talents and zeal for My service assures me that the selection which I have made will be perfectly agreeable to your Imperial Majesty, and that he will discharge the important duties of his Embassy in such a manner as to prove himself worthy of this new mark of My confidence, and to merit Your Imperial Majesty's approbation and esteem. I therefore request that you will give entire credence to all that he shall communicate to you in My name, more especially when he shall assure your Imperial Majesty of My invariable esteem and regard, and shall renew to you the expression of those sentiments of sincere attachment and highest consideration with which I am, Sir, My Brother,

Your Imperial Majesty's good Sister,

VICTORIA R.

[Place.] [Date.]

To My good Brother the Emperor of [].

FORM of a CREDENTIAL LETTER addressed to a QUEEN CONSORT.

MADAM, MY SISTER,—Having made choice of [*name and titles*] to reside at the Court of the Emperor your Imperial Majesty's august Consort, in the character of My Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary, I have charged him to deliver this Letter to your Imperial Majesty, and to convey to you the assurances of My most sincere friendship and regard. I flatter Myself that your Imperial Majesty will receive him favourably, and that you will give entire credence to all that he shall have occasion to say to you in My Name, particularly when he shall express the sentiments of invariable attachment and esteem, with which I am, Madam, My Sister,

Your Imperial Majesty's good Sister,

VICTORIA R.

[Place.] [Date.]

To My good Sister the Empress of [].

FORM of a CREDENTIAL LETTER addressed to the PRESIDENT of a REPUBLIC.

VICTORIA, by the Grace of God, Queen of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, Defender of the Faith, &c. &c. &c., to the President of the [] sendeth greeting! Our good friend! Having nothing more at heart than to cultivate and improve the relations of friendship and good understanding which happily subsist between the two countries, We have made choice of Our right trusty and well beloved [*name and titles*], in whose fidelity, prudence, and other good qualities, We have the fullest confidence, to reside with You in the character of Our Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary. We trust that the selection of [] for this important post will be agreeable to You; and We entertain no doubt that he will merit Your approbation and good will, by a strict observance of the instructions he has received from Us, to manifest to You Our constant friendship, and Our sincere desire to preserve and advance on all occasions the interests and happiness of both nations. We, therefore, request that You will grant a favourable reception to [] in the character of Our Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary, and that You will give entire credence to all that he may represent to you in Our name, especially when, in obedience to Our orders, he shall assure you of Our esteem and regard, and of Our hearty wishes for the welfare and prosperity of the []. And so We recommend You to the protection of the Almighty. Given at Our Court, at the day of [], in the year of Our Lord One thousand eight hundred and [], and in the [] year of Our reign.

Your good Friend,

VICTORIA R.

Superscribed,
To the President of the [].

(Countersigned) [].

FORM of COMMISSION for a SECRETARY of EMBASSY or LEGATION.

Draft. [Name.]
Commission, as Secretary to her Majesty's Embassy [Legation] at
(The large Signet) VICTORIA R.

VICTORIA, by the Grace of God, Queen of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, Defender of the Faith, &c. &c. &c. To all and singular to whom these presents shall come, greeting, Whereas it appears to Us expedient to nominate some person of approved industry, fidelity, and knowledge, to perform the functions of secretary to our Embassy [Legation] to [] Know ye therefore, that We have constituted and appointed, as We do by these presents constitute and appoint, Our trusty and well-beloved [*name*] to be secretary to that Embassy [Legation]; giving and granting to him, in that character, all power and authority to do and execute all necessary writings, memorials, and instruments, as also to assist Our Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary to [] in all things

SERIES B.

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which may belong to the duties of secretary to the aforesaid Embassy [Legation]. And We therefore request and his Ministers, and all those whom it may concern, to receive and acknowledge Our said trusty and well-beloved as secretary to Our said Embassy [Legation], and freely to communicate with him upon all and singular the things that may appertain to the affairs of the said Embassy [Legation].

Given at Our Court at the day of in the year of our Lord One thousand eight hundred and and in the year of Our reign.

By her Majesty's Command.
(Countersigned) by the Secretary of State.

FORM of LETTER appointing an ATTACHE.

Foreign Office.

I HAVE to inform that the Queen has been pleased to signify her commands that should be officially attached to her Majesty's at will accordingly consider as forming part of your Diplomatic Establishment, and you will employ him in the business of the in whatever way you may deem most beneficial for her Majesty's service.

I am, your most obedient, humble servant,

FORM of a LETTER of RECALL addressed to a SOVEREIGN.

SIR, MY BROTHER,—Having occasion elsewhere for the services of [*name and titles*] who has for some time resided at Your Imperial Majesty's Court in the character of My Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary; I have directed him to take leave of Your Imperial Majesty. Having myself had ample reason to be satisfied with the zeal, ability and fidelity with which has executed My orders on all occasions during his Embassy, I trust that Your Imperial Majesty will also have found his conduct deserving of Your approbation and esteem; and in this pleasing confidence I avail myself of the present opportunity to renew to you the assurance of the invariable attachment and high esteem with which I am, Sir, My Brother,

Your Imperial Majesty's good Sister,
VICTORIA R.

[Place.] [Date.]
To my good Brother the Emperor of [].

FORM of a LETTER of RECALL addressed to a QUEEN CONSORT.

MADAM, MY SISTER,—Having occasion elsewhere for the services of [*name and titles*] who has for some time resided at the Court of the Emperor, Your Imperial Majesty's August Consort, in the character of My Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary, it becomes necessary for Me to notify to You his recall. I flatter Myself that the conduct of has, on all occasions during his Embassy, been such as to merit Your Imperial Majesty's approbation; and in this pleasing hope, I avail myself of the present opportunity to renew to you the assurances of the sincere attachment and highest esteem with which I am, Madam, My Sister,

Your Imperial Majesty's good Sister,
VICTORIA R.

[Place.] [Date.]
To My good Sister the Empress of [].

FORM of a LETTER of RECALL addressed to the PRESIDENT of a REPUBLIC.

VICTORIA, by the Grace of God, Queen of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, Defender of the Faith, &c. &c. &c., To the President of the sendeth greeting! Our good Friend! Having occasion elsewhere for the services of* Our right trusty and well-beloved [*name and titles*] who has for some time resided with You in the character of Our Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary to the We hereby notify to you his Recall. We are ourselves perfectly satisfied with the zeal, ability and fidelity with which uniformly executed Our orders during his Mission, by studying to promote the harmony and good understanding which happily subsist between the two Nations, and which We trust will always continue; and We entertain no doubt that You will also have found his conduct deserving of Your approbation. We gladly embrace this opportunity to assure You of the sincere interest which We take in the welfare and prosperity of the ; and so We recommend You to the protection of the Almighty.

Given at Our Court at , the day of , in the year of Our Lord One thousand eight hundred and , and in the year of Our reign.

Your good Friend,
(Countersigned) [].
Superscribed to the President of the [].
VICTORIA R.

* This phrase would be varied according to circumstances.

NAVAL YARDS.

Report of the Commissioners appointed to inquire into the Control and Management of her Majesty's Naval Yards.

THE commission was issued on the 21st August, 1860, to Mr. Lewis Ricardo, Earl of Gifford, Sir Henry Pollard Willoughby, Robert Spencer Robinson, and Robert Dalglish, to inquire into the system of control and management of the dockyards, the purchase of materials and stores, the cost of building and repairing, altering, fitting, and refitting the ships of the navy, and the best mode of keeping the accounts thereof; and also to inquire into the expenditure of former years connected with the above subjects, not, however, including any period prior to the year 1848, in order to ascertain whether the system of ship-building in the dockyards has been efficient, and whether the expenditure on the alterations of the ships of the navy, either in converting them from sailing to steam ships, or any other alterations during the progress of their construction, has been judiciously applied; and also to suggest such changes as may, in the opinion of the commissioners, be best fitted to render these establishments more effective for the maintenance of our naval power, together with any measures which may appear calculated to secure the more vigorous and economical administration of the naval yards.

On the 11th March, 1861, the commissioners, Mr. Robert Dalglish, Earl of Gifford, and Sir Henry Pollard Willoughby, reported as follows:—

We do most humbly certify unto your Majesty that we have visited and carefully inspected your Majesty's dockyards at Deptford, Woolwich, Chatham, Sheerness, Portsmouth, Devonport, and Pembroke; that we have inquired into the general management, and the mode of keeping the accounts; that we have called for such papers and returns, and have taken such evidence, both in London and at the dockyards, as appeared to us likely to afford the best information on the subjects of the inquiry. The minutes of the evidence taken by us are annexed, as well as the minutes of the evidence taken by the commissioners appointed by your Majesty on the 8th day of June, 1860, to hold a similar inquiry.

We humbly submit to your Majesty the conclusions at which we have arrived, under the following heads, viz.:—1. The system of control and management of the dockyards. 2. The purchase of materials and stores. 3. The best mode of keeping the accounts. 4. The cost of building, converting, fitting, refitting, and repairing the ships of your Majesty's navy.

1. *The System of Control and Management of Your Majesty's Dockyards.*

We regret to state that, in our opinion, the control and management of the dockyards is inefficient. We are of opinion that the inefficiency may be attributed to the following causes:—1st. The constitution of the Board of Admiralty. 2nd. The defective organization of the subordinate departments. 3rd. The want of clear and well-defined responsibility. 4th. The absence of any means, both now and in times past, of effectually checking expenditure, from the want of accurate accounts.

The Board of Admiralty consists of a First Lord, who is a Cabinet Minister, four Naval Lords, and a civilian, who is a Member of the House of Commons. There are two secretaries, one of whom is permanent; the other is political, and the organ of the Admiralty in the House of Commons

when the First Lord is not in the House of Commons. Any two lords constitute a board, and an order signed by any two lords is of equal validity as if signed by the whole board.

There are five principal officers of the civil departments of the navy, namely, the surveyor (recently called controller) of the navy, the accountant-general of the navy, the storekeeper-general of the navy, the controller of the victualling, and the director-general of the medical department. There is a sixth department, namely, that of the director of engineering and architectural works. All these officers are independent of each other, and are subject only to the control of the board. Each department is placed under the superintendence of one of the Lords of the Admiralty. The controller's department is under the supervision of the First Sea Lord. The storekeeper-general's department is under the Third Sea Lord. The departments of the accountant-general and of the director of works are both under the Civil Lord.

The principal officers communicate with the dockyards through the superintendents. It is stated in evidence that contradictory orders are given, causing delay and prejudice to your Majesty's service.

Sir James Graham stated in evidence that "the Board of Admiralty can only work by the First Lord exercising power to such an extent as really to render the board subordinate to his will." Again, "that a board only works well when the head of it makes it as unlike a board as possible." Again, that "the First Lord is technically not a Minister of Marine, but virtually the system can never work unless he really be so." It appears to us that the power which under the existing system the First Lord is stated to assume, if he would perform his duty efficiently, should be conferred upon him by Act of Parliament.

The fluctuating character of the Board of Admiralty has been brought under our notice as being incompatible with effective and economical management of the dockyards. The late controller, Sir Baldwin Walker, states that he has seen six or seven changes in the thirteen years that he has been in office, every change causing different arrangements and alterations. Sir Richard Bromley, the accountant-general, states that there have been fifteen First Lords, sixty-five other lords, and seventeen secretaries of the Admiralty since 1829, making a total of ninety-seven changes within that period. There have been six Civil Lords in succession over his department since he became accountant-general in 1854. Colonel Greene, the director of works, states that in eleven years he has acted under six superintending Lords.

The fourth cause of inefficiency is stated under the head of "Accounts."

With a view of rendering the control and management more efficient, we humbly offer the following suggestions:—1st. That a minister for the navy department should be appointed, and should be held entirely responsible for the control and management of the dockyards. 2nd. That the dockyards should be looked upon as large manufacturing establishments for the purpose of building and repairing the ships of your Majesty's navy. 3rd. That the minister of the navy should have the power of appointing a controller-general acquainted with and qualified to manage such establishments. 4th. That the controller-general should have the power (subject to the approval of the minister), of selecting the superintendents of the different dockyards, as these officers are the instruments of carrying out his instructions. 5th. That the superintendents of the dockyards (subject to the

approval of the minister) have the selection of the officers under them, with the exception of the officers in the accountant's and storekeeper's departments. 6th. That the storekeeper-general of the navy should be appointed by the minister, but should be under the controller-general. 7th. That the storekeeper-general of the navy should (subject to the approval of the minister) have the selection of the officers in his department. 8th. That the director of engineering and architectural works should be appointed by the minister, but should be under the controller-general. 9th. That the director of works should (subject to the approval of the minister) have the selection of the officers in his department. 10th. That the accountant-general of the navy should be appointed by, and be responsible to the minister for the navy department; that he should have the entire control of the whole accounts connected with the dockyards; and that he should furnish all accounts required by the controller-general. 11th. That the accountant-general of the navy should have the selection of the officers in his department, subject to the approval of the minister. 12th. That the officers and men in the dockyards should be placed under the same restrictions as to voting at elections as the officers of the Post-office, the Customs, and the Inland Revenue. 13th. That in each dockyard the captain of the steam ordinary should be appointed to superintend the fitting out of ships, that he should be held responsible for any deviations from the established rules as to fittings, which he may, in his judgment, think necessary; he should be the medium of communication between the officers of the navy and the superintendent of the dockyard. 14th. That all the departments of the Admiralty connected with the dockyards should be brought under one roof. 15th. That the minister should be empowered to employ scientific and practical men when he may find it advisable to consult them upon inventions and improvements connected with the department. 16th. That the estimates laid before Parliament should be accompanied by the annual programme of shipbuilding works, as given in Appendix No. 3 to this Report, for the year 1860-61, with the estimated cost of each ship under the heads of "Materials" and "Labour." 17th. That a surplus arising on one vote of the navy estimates should not be permitted to be applied to make good a deficiency upon another vote, even with the sanction of the Treasury. 18th. That the power of the Treasury to increase the expenditure on one item of a vote by applying the monies voted on another item of the same vote should be limited. 19th. That vote No. 10 be divided into five votes, under the heads of—1. Timber; 2. Other stores; 3. Vessels built by contract; 4. Steam machinery; 5. Coals; and that each vote should be set out in detail, showing the establishment in each case; the different descriptions of timber and other stores to be purchased; the names of vessels to be built by contract, their armament, horse-power, and estimated cost; and the ships for which the steam machinery is to be provided. 20th. That a return to Parliament of the expenses incurred on your Majesty's ships should be made in the form annexed, marked A., and be laid on the table of the House of Commons, with the navy estimates.

2.—*Purchase of Materials and Stores.*

We have found a general complaint in the dockyards as to the mode in which stores are supplied. In some cases it has been a want of certain articles which have delayed the progress of the works. In others, the complaint has been, especially with regard to timber, that the descriptions

sent have not been in accordance with the requisitions from the officers of the yards.

We consider that the suggestion we have made under the head of "Control," to the effect that the department of the storekeeper-general of the navy should be placed under the control of the controller-general, will have the effect of making that department work harmoniously with the other departments in the dockyards, and of removing the causes of complaint just adverted to.

We would further suggest under this head:—1st. That the large contracts, especially for timber, should be more divided. 2nd. That the period for which standing contracts are entered into should be reduced. 3rd. That timber not of contract dimensions, or in excess of the quantity required, should be rejected, instead of being received under the authority of the storekeeper-general, as at present. This was recommended by the Committee of Revision, of 1848, of which Sir Baldwin Walker and Sir Richard Bromley were members, but their recommendation has not been carried out.

3.—*The best Mode of keeping the Accounts.*

The system of accounts is elaborate and minute, but, so far as we can judge, its results are not to be relied upon for any practical purpose.

An account of the expenditure of the dockyards has been kept in various forms for many years. In 1848, the Committee of Revision recommended that the annual accounts, No. 88 and No. 89, which profess to give the expenditure on "yard services" and "ships" respectively, should be made up monthly.

The Admiralty Board order of 1849, to give effect to this recommendation, appears to have been obeyed for a short time, but the accountant-general states that the monthly accounts soon fell into disuse. When the accountants were appointed to the yards in 1856, they were instructed to make up the monthly accounts, but these accounts have frequently been in arrear, and when made up have been sent to London only on one occasion, namely, in 1859, when they were asked for by the accountant-general of the navy, to enable him to make up an account of expenditure ordered by the Board of Admiralty.

The annual accounts, No. 88 and No. 89, have been sent to the office of the surveyor (now controller) of the navy, but no use whatever appears to have been made of No. 88, while up to 1860 the only use we can discover to which No. 89 has been applied, has been in the compilation of the Domesday Book, a record which has been kept in the surveyor's office for more than 150 years, and which professes to give an account of the expense of building and maintaining every ship in the navy during that period.

In 1860, a return, No. 174 of that session, founded on these accounts, was presented to the House of Commons, purporting to show the expenditure on building, converting, repairing, fitting, &c., the ships of your Majesty's navy during the financial year 1858–59. A similar return has just been presented for 1859–60.

As a proof of the inaccuracy of the detailed accounts, we refer to the report of an investigation into the accounts at Woolwich dockyard. The examiners report that they have discovered 7,906 errors in the accounts from the 1st April to the 30th November, 1860, of which 6,566 are in the rating, valuing, and totalling of timber and store notes, in the storekeeper's

department, varying in amount from 1*l.* to 490*l.*; 208 in the rating, valuing, totalling, and proving of workmanship notes in the accountant's department, varying in amount from 1*l.* to 11*l.*; 874 in the postings, totalling them, and preparing returns Nos. 88 and 89, in the accountant's department, varying in amount from 1*l.* to 400*l.*; 71 in the postings and totalling of factory portion of returns Nos. 88 and 89, in the chief engineer's department, varying in amount from 1*l.* to 4*l.* 9*s.*; and 187 in the postings and totalling of return No. 8, in the storekeeper's department, varying in amount from 1*s.* 6*d.* to 365*l.* 9*s.* It appears from the same document that a sum of 4,480*l.* for engines and boilers of the *Ranger* was omitted to be entered into the monthly return for May; and that a sum from 1,000*l.* to 1,200*l.* per annum, for the time of certain workmen, was charged twice from the 1st April, 1858.

A subsequent report to the Admiralty from Commodore Drummond, who suggested the original investigation, shows that a sum of 5,210*l.* for expenses incurred in the factory department was omitted to be charged against the *Weser*, in the annual return No. 89 for 1859-60.

While recommending that an inquiry similar to that just finished at Woolwich should be instituted in the other dockyards, we think it right to state that we attribute the errors in these accounts to the complex and elaborate system, the inconvenient printed forms on which the accounts are kept, and the fact that the accounts were seldom used for any practical purpose.

The accounts of the steam factories profess to give the cost price of the articles supplied to your Majesty's ships. We find, however, that they are made to balance by an entry under the head of "General Expenditure," which is, in fact, the difference between the valuation of the work done, and the materials and wages charged against the factory. No charge whatever is made for interest on buildings or plant, or for the supervision of the principal officers.

This system of accounts encourages a belief on the part of the officers of the dockyards, which is communicated to the Board of Admiralty, that the steam factories in the dockyards can produce articles at a cheaper rate than private establishments. This belief has, in our opinion, tended to a greater extension of the factory system than was requisite to render them efficient as repairing establishments, and if these accounts are not placed at once upon a proper footing, we fear that this erroneous system will be still further extended.

In all the other manufacturing establishments, such as the smitheries, foundries, metal mills, mast, boat, and capstan houses, roperies, sail and colour lofts, the joiners' and plumbers' shops, &c. (with the exception of the conversion of timber), the net cost of the articles manufactured is increased by the "share of general expenditure," as is done in the factory accounts; but, in addition to this, ten per cent. is added to cover wear and tear of machinery, use of buildings, and supervision.

The storekeeper-general states that "in some of the manufactures the cost of the machinery, and whatever is comprised under the head of 'plant,' does not amount to ten per cent., or anything like it; in other cases, ten per cent. is a fair amount; and perhaps in one or two cases it may be under the mark;" and he, therefore, does "not believe that the manufacturing accounts show less than the cost of the manufactures of the dockyards."

With regard to the conversion of timber, the evidence leads us to believe that the rate-book price of converted timber charged to the ship or service

is much too low, and that it does not cover even those charges for incidental expenses connected with "landing, surveying, receiving, carting, stacking, removing to pits or sawmills, wages paid to attendant converters, sawyers, writers, reducers, and issuers, and share of general expenditure for cost of petty stores, &c., used at the saw-pit and sawmills," all which are supposed to be included in it, still less the cost of repairing and maintaining the buildings and machinery connected with its conversion.

It may be observed that, although there has been an accountant-general of the navy since 1832, the expense accounts of the dockyards have never been placed under his control, notwithstanding the fact that the most experienced accountants who have examined this question have recommended this improvement.

The cash accounts of the dockyards are made up by the accountant of the yard, and are under the control of the accountant-general.

The store accounts, as regards quantities, are made up by the storekeeper of the yard, examined in the office of the superintendent, and are under the control of the storekeeper-general.

The valuation of the store notes is done in the office of the storekeeper, but is not checked in any other department.

The expense ledgers, which are the basis of the returns No. 88 and No. 89, are made up by the accountant from the workmanship notes, and from the issue and return notes of stores after they have been rated and valued by the storekeeper. The practice is, and always has been, to send these accounts to the surveyor (now controller) of the navy.

The account No. 8, which professes to give the detailed cost of each ship when built, is made up by the storekeeper, and transmitted by him to the controller of the navy, the detail relating to workmanship being furnished to the storekeeper by the accountant.

The factory accounts are made up by the pay clerk and book-keeper of the factory, and transmitted to the controller's department.

The accounts of the other manufacturing establishments are signed by the storekeepers, and transmitted to the storekeeper-general.

Although the expense and factory accounts are transmitted exclusively to the controller's department in London, the late controller stated that he did not consider himself responsible for the accounts made up in the dockyards. The fact is, that no one, either in London or at the yards, is responsible for these accounts as a whole.

These and many other considerations which have come out in evidence, such as the intricate character of the accounts, and the absence of any uniform system of classification of heads of service, causing ambiguity as to the services to which the expenditure is to be charged, have led us to the conclusion that these accounts are useless for purposes of comparison, and not to be relied upon as statements of fact.

If the accounts were kept so as to show the exact cost of ships, a competition in economy would be established between the different yards, which would be attended with great benefit to your Majesty's service.

We have already suggested, under the head of "Control," that the whole accounts connected with the dockyards should be put under the control of the accountant-general of the navy, and that he should have the appointment of the accountants at the dockyards, subject to the approval of the minister for the navy.

We would further suggest:—1st. That the accountant-general should be

instructed to frame a new system of accounts on the principle of double entry. 2nd. That the accounts should be made up in the dockyards each month, and transmitted to the accountant-general by the 15th of the following month. 3rd. That an annual account should be laid before Parliament, giving a detailed statement, showing how the money voted for the dockyards has been expended on ships and services. 4th. That the forms of account should be carefully revised. 5th. That the accountant-general should consult with the officers and decide upon a uniform system of classification of heads of service at the different yards, with the view of removing ambiguity in heading the issue and workmanship notes, and for the purpose of enabling the controller-general to institute comparisons between the cost of similar descriptions of work at the different yards. 6th. That the storekeepers should be cashiers, and should pay the wages at the yards. 7th. That the practice of issuing stores without vouchers should be immediately checked by the superintendents of the dockyards.

Having pointed out what, in our opinion, is essential to secure a proper system of accounts, we refrain from going further into detail upon this most important subject, feeling convinced that the Admiralty possess in Sir Richard Bromley, the present accountant-general of the navy, an officer well fitted, by his great experience and acknowledged ability, to remodel this department.

4. *Cost of Building, Converting, &c., the Ships of your Majesty's Navy.*

Such being the very unsatisfactory condition of the value accounts of the dockyards, we abstain from expressing any opinion upon this head, based upon data furnished by these accounts.

Various views have been expressed to us by some of the witnesses that we have examined as to the cost per ton for building, converting, &c., the ships of your Majesty's navy, and as to the causes of the discrepancies which are admitted, on the face of the accounts, to exist between the cost of building, &c. at the different yards. But as these opinions have been offered in reliance upon the accuracy of the accounts, we do not think it advisable to enter more minutely into the question.

With a view, however, of obtaining something like an approximation to the cost of building, per ton, which should be, as far as possible, uninfluenced by the erroneous system of accounts, we called for a return from Pembroke, which is solely a building yard, stating—1. The total expenditure for all services at Pembroke dockyard from the 1st January, 1848, to the 31st December, 1859. 2. The valuation of vessels on the slips, and of timber converted, on the 1st January, 1848. 3. The amount (included in the first item) expended on the slips, dock, buildings, and machinery, between the 1st January, 1848, and the 31st December, 1859. 4. The valuation of vessels on the slips, and of timber converted, on the 1st January, 1860. 5. The total tonnage of vessels launched at Pembroke during the period; from the 1st January, 1848, to the 31st December, 1859.

From this return it appears that, without taking into consideration the sum of 323,210*l.*, which has been expended upon works, dock, slips, buildings, machinery, &c., since 1848, the vessels built at Pembroke dockyard during that period, amounting to 65,435 tons, have cost 33*l.* 3*s.* 5*d.* per ton for the hulls alone, and exclusive of fitting, which is always done at other yards.

We are of opinion that the system of task and job, as at present carried

on in the dockyards, is open to great abuse. It is based upon schemes of prices consisting of 94,762 items. This can hardly fail to lead to numerous errors in pricing the work done. Another grave objection is the multiplicity of measurements required.

If task and job is to be continued, we would suggest that it should be employed only when ships can be divided into sections, and the exact amount of labour to be paid for in each section estimated in the constructor's office. But if the sectional system cannot be applied in the dockyards, we recommend a return to day-pay, with increased superintendence, and that task and job should only be resorted to in cases of great emergency, and even then should be confined to the building of ships, and should not be applied in cases of fitting, altering, or repairing.

We recommend that with the submission for building of a ship, the controller-general should also submit a carefully prepared estimate of the entire cost of the ship, distinguishing materials, labour, fitting and rigging, and engines. That in all cases where alteration or repair of a ship is proposed, a similar estimate should be prepared. That these estimates should be signed by the controller-general, the constructor, the engineer-in-chief of the navy, and the master attendant, master shipwright, chief engineer, and storekeeper of the dockyard, where the ship is to be built, altered, or repaired.

5.—*The Expenditure in converting and altering the Ships of your Majesty's Navy.*

So far as we are able to express an opinion upon a question so purely professional, we believe that the workmanship in the dockyards is excellent; but we are of opinion that, under a proper system of dockyard management, large retrenchments may be made in the expenditure, without impairing the efficiency of the yards. We base this opinion partly upon the evidence, and partly upon the personal observations which we have made in going round the dockyards.

We have felt it to be our duty to inquire what alterations have been made in vessels from their original designs, in the course of construction. Excluding the cases of conversion of sailing ships to screws, either before or after they have been launched, the only instances we find of such alterations are:—The *Howe*, ordered to be built at Pembroke in January, 1855. In December, 1857, being at that time only in frame, it was decided to lengthen her 15 feet by the bow. The cost of this alteration is said to be 384*l.* 5*s.* 3*d.* The *Immortalité* was commenced as a sailing ship in 1849. In June, 1856, being then in frame, she was ordered to be lengthened 14 feet by the stern, 33 feet 6 inches in midships, and 4 feet 6 inches by the bow, in order to adapt her for the screw. So far the ship is included in the class of alterations from sailing to screw ships. But a second alteration took place by an order dated February, 1858, by which she was again lengthened 14 feet by the bow. The difference of expense between lengthening the bow 18 feet 6 inches at one operation, and doing it in two, has been estimated in the controller's office at about 200*l.* On the 8th of February, 1845, a drawing was sent to Pembroke to build the *Encounter*, and on the 19th May of the same year, the *Conflict* and *Desperate* were ordered. On the 5th March, 1846, the *Enchantress* and *Harrier*, and on the 11th September, 1846, the *Falcon* were ordered to be converted as duplicates of the *Encounter*, *Conflict*, and *Desperate*. By orders of the 15th

and 19th July, 1848, the *Desperate* was altered and lengthened 7 feet by the stern. From the memoranda of the superintendent of Pembroke, of the 21st July, and the 22nd September, 1851, it appears that portions of the frames of the *Enchantress*, the *Falcon*, and the *Harrier* No. 1, then lying in Pembroke dockyard in a converted state, were ordered to be appropriated for building the *Swallow* of 484 tons, the *Ariel* of 486 tons, the *Harrier* No. 2, of 747 tons, and the *Curacoa* of 1,569 tons. The *Petrel* was ordered to be built at Devonport, in 1857, like the *Pantaloon*, of 577 tons. In 1858, when the conversion of her frame was nearly complete, according to Mr. Peake, the master-shipwright, or only one-fifth, according to the controller, she was ordered to be lengthened 9 feet by the bow, and to be built of the increased breadth of 1 foot 3 inches, thereby increasing her tonnage to 669 tons. No alteration was made in the *Petrel* after her keel was laid down. The *Pelican's* name first appeared in the list of vessels ordered to be built at Pembroke in 1854; she was then intended to be like the *Cruizer*, of 748 tons. In 1855, she was ordered to be the same as the *Mutine*, of 878 tons. In 1858, when her frame was about three-fourths cut out, she was ordered to be built of increased length to give her finer lines, and some of her bow-timbers had in consequence to be reconverted. The loss was 75*l*. The *Orlando* was designed as a 40-gun frigate, and actually built as a 50-gun frigate. No alteration was made in her at Pembroke in the progress of building. The bulkheads of her magazine were put up at Pembroke; the fittings of the interior part of the magazine for receiving the powder were done at Keyham; and it was not until these fittings were completed that they found that the quantity of powder that the ship would stow was not equal to the quantity which the Ordnance Department said she must take as her supply. The deficiency of room was for about 200 cases; an alteration was therefore proposed by the officers, and approved by the surveyor, for taking a piece out of the spirit-room and adding it to the after magazine, and for taking down the light-room and lighting it from the outside of the shaft alley passage. These alterations were carried out at an expense of about 400*l*. The cause of the magazine being insufficient to hold its powder, was partly that the *Orlando* was built for 50 guns instead of 40, and partly that the Ordnance nearly doubled the establishment of shells to be kept on board the ship. Other alterations of minor importance were made in the fittings of the *Orlando*.

The evidence of the master shipwrights on the subject of the alterations in these ships, is that they were judicious and great improvements on the original designs, and we see no reason to doubt their opinion. The policy of converting a large number of sailing ships to screws can only be justified by the necessity which existed of constructing a screw navy with the least delay. In 1854-55 several floating batteries were constructed with iron defence plates of great thickness. These batteries were never practically tried, although similar batteries belonging to your Majesty's allies were used at Kinburn and found highly efficient.

The principle of the protection afforded by iron defence plates was proved, but no attempt was made to apply it to ships of war generally until 1858. Even now the capabilities of an iron ship of war of the first class protected by iron plates have not been tested, and it remains to be proved whether such ships are efficient for service in your Majesty's navy.

We are opinion that iron ship-building should not be carried on in your Majesty's dockyards under the existing system of accounts. It has been

stated to us as a reason for commencing iron ship-building in the dockyards, that it is necessary that your Majesty's Government should have it in their power to test the cost of that description of work, so as to have some check upon the contract prices asked by the private builders. This object, if attainable, would be useful; but we believe that, under the present system of accounts, no such test could be obtained.

A LIST of THIRTY SAILING SHIPS OF THE LINE and FOUR FRIGATES converted into SCREW SHIPS, showing the Total Cost on their HULLS after the Dates of the Orders for their Conversion, and also the Timber used; as compared with Ships of the same Class built expressly as Screw Ships.

Guns.	Names.	Horse Power.	Ton-nage.	Cost.			Quantity of Ship-building Timber used.	Ships of the same Class built as Screw Ships.			
				Materials.	Labour.	Total.		Cost.			Ship-building Timber used.
								Materials.	Labour.	Total.	
				£	£	£	Loads.	£	£	£	Loads.
121	Royal Albert	500	3,726	32,297	24,946	57,243*	960	78,246	33,534	111,780	5,400
100	Windsor Castle ..	500	3,101	17,923	12,348	30,271*	516	65,121	27,909	93,030	4,450
91	Algiers	600	3,740	32,353	18,331	50,584*	343	70,140	30,060	100,200	4,800
91	Hanibal	450	3,136	26,133	15,008	40,141*	376	65,856	28,224	94,080	4,500
91	Princess Royal ..	400	3,129	23,059	15,872	38,931*	525	68,709	28,161	96,870	4,500
90	Cæsar	400	2,767	16,146	15,247	31,392*	137	58,107	24,903	83,010	4,000
90	Exmouth	400	3,109	16,926	14,244	31,170*	376	63,389	27,981	91,370	4,450
90	Trafalgar	500	2,900	19,992	12,707	32,699†	474	60,900	26,100	87,000	4,300
90	Neptune	500	2,830	24,826	15,987	40,312†	1,362	59,430	25,470	84,900	4,150
90	Nelson	500	2,786	26,969	17,425	44,394†	1,609	57,456	24,624	82,080	4,000
90	St. George	500	2,864	24,319	15,182	39,501†	1,227	60,144	23,776	83,920	4,150
90	Waterloo	500	2,845	25,989	14,610	40,599†	1,157	59,746	25,605	85,350	4,150
90	Royal William ..	500	2,849	24,319	15,182	39,501†	1,385	59,829	25,641	85,470	4,150
90	Royal George ..	400	2,616	18,837	9,879	23,716	247	54,526	23,544	78,070	3,800
90	London	500	2,687	22,710	15,312	38,022†	1,003	56,427	24,183	80,610	3,900
90	Nile	500	2,622	12,996	10,907	23,903	698	55,062	21,598	76,660	3,800
90	Rodney	500	2,770	30,255	17,896	48,151†	772	58,170	24,930	83,100	4,000
90	Aboukir	400	3,091	12,713	11,519	24,232	339	64,911	27,819	92,730	4,450
86	Queen	500	3,249	29,153	16,021	45,174†	1,039	68,229	29,241	97,470	4,650
86	Frederick William.	500	3,241	19,694	13,668	33,362	1,064	68,061	29,169	97,230	4,550
80	Centurion	400	2,590	13,112	11,653	24,765	392	54,290	23,310	77,600	3,750
80	Colossus	400	2,590	13,268	10,485	23,743	280	54,390	23,310	77,700	3,750
80	Lion	400	2,611	17,661	8,427	26,088†	333	54,631	23,499	78,130	3,750
80	Mars	400	2,573	13,496	9,492	22,988	463	54,033	23,157	77,190	3,750
80	Meanees	400	2,591	11,897	7,218	19,115	370	51,411	23,319	74,730	3,750
80	Brunswick	400	2,492	18,723	13,577	32,300*	394	59,232	22,424	81,656	3,750
80	Cressy	400	2,540	12,141	8,129	20,270	180	53,340	22,860	76,200	3,750
80	Majestic	400	2,566	13,217	8,974	22,191	309	53,885	23,094	76,980	3,750
80	Irresistible	400	2,642	27,376	13,227	40,603*	185	55,462	23,778	79,240	3,800
80	Goliath	400	2,596	13,775	7,752	21,527	193	54,516	23,364	77,880	3,750
2,636	Totals	13,550	85,399	605,803	401,225	1,007,028	18,518	1,793,879	768,591	2,561,970	123,700
51	Phœbe	500	2,896	22,000	13,500	35,500	1,158	55,024	23,168	78,192	3,900
51	Severn	500	2,767	21,578	13,263	34,841	1,390	52,573	22,136	74,709	3,050
51	Sutlej	500	3,066	22,000	13,500	35,500	1,641	58,254	24,528	82,782	3,400
51	Phæon	400	2,296	22,287	11,513	33,800	863	45,524	19,168	64,692	2,680
204	Totals	1,900	11,125	87,865	51,776	139,641	5,052	211,375	89,000	300,375	12,330
2,840	Graud Totals ..	15,450	96,524	693,668	453,001	1,146,669	23,570	2,004,754	857,591	2,862,345	136,030

By the foregoing table it will be seen that the conversion of thirty sail-of-the-line and four large frigates, including repairs, was effected for little more than 1,000,000*l.*, with about 23,500 loads of timber; whereas if similar ships had been built, they would have cost nearly 3,000,000*l.*, and would have consumed above 136,000 loads of timber; thus showing a saving of nearly 2,000,000*l.*, and upwards of 112,000 loads of timber. But this is not the most important view of the question. It was a matter of necessity to convert those ships in order to meet the national requirements; for, if money had been no consideration, timber to the extent required could not have been procured, nor were slips available on which to build them. Thus more durable ships have been obtained in a very short period at but little more than one-third of the cost of new ships. The sailing ships, if retained as such, must either have rotted in our harbours, or have been kept in repair at a considerable expense. To account for the difference in the cost of conversion, the ships marked thus (*) were not completed as sailing ships when ordered to be converted into screw ships. Those marked thus (†) have the cost of their repairs included in the sums for conversion.

PRISONERS.

A Return of the Number of Prisoners on the 1st day of May, 1861, in Brixton, Chatham, Dartmoor, Fulham, Millbank, Parkhurst, Pentonville, Portland, Portsmouth, Woking, Perth, Mountjoy (Male), Mountjoy (Female), Philipstown, Smithfield, and Spike Island Prisons. (Mr. Childers.) 14th May, 1861. (278.)

THE number of prisoners on the 1st of May, 1861, in Brixton, Chatham, Dartmoor, Fulham, Millbank, Portsmouth, and Woking prisons was as follows:—Brixton, 549 females; Chatham, 796 males; Dartmoor, 1,037 males; Fulham, 176 females; Millbank, 469 males and 450 females; Parkhurst, 236 males; Pentonville, 391 males; Portland, 1,518 males; Portsmouth, 984 males; Woking, 459 males. Total, 5,890 males and 1,175 females: total, 7,065.

Besides these, there were 316 convicts at Wakefield and 97 at Leicester, in cells rented by the Government for convicts.

In Scotland, the number of prisoners on the 1st May, 1861, in Perth (General) prison was 592, classified as follows:—In the prison proper, sentenced to imprisonment, 187 males and 90 females; sentenced to transportation or to penal servitude, 287 females; total, 564. In the department for criminal lunatics, 17 males and 11 females; total, 28. Total, 592.

In Ireland, the number of prisoners in each of the prisons on the 1st of May, 1861, was as follows:—Mountjoy (male), 213; Spike Island, 503; Philipstown, 158; Smithfield, 56; Lusk (agricultural branch), 64; Mountjoy (female), 406; total, 1,400.

DIVORCE AND MATRIMONIAL CAUSES.

Returns relating to Divorce and Matrimonial Causes. (Mr. Malins.) 1st March, 1861. (69.)

THE number of petitions for dissolution of marriage arising out of alleged acts of adultery committed previous and subsequent to the passing of the Divorce and Matrimonial Causes Act was, in each year, as follows:—1823, 1; 1833, 3; 1834, 2; 1836, 1; 1837, 1; 1838, 2; 1839, 2; 1840, 4; 1841, 8; 1842, 2; 1843, 3; 1844, 10; 1845, 6; 1846, 11; 1847, 17; 1848, 15; 1849, 8; 1850, 27; 1851, 30; 1852, 25; 1853, 36; 1854, 38; 1855, 39; 1856, 59; 1857, up to 28th August, when the Act passed, 36; and subsequent to the 28th August, 43; 1858, 85; 1859, 66; 1860, 24; total number of petitions for dissolution of marriage filed since the passing of the Act, 11th January, 1858, to 21st August, 1860, 604.

The number of petitions for judicial separation arising out of acts of adultery, cruelty, and desertion committed previous and subsequent to the passing of the Divorce and Matrimonial Causes Act was as follows:—In 1826, 1 on account of cruelty; 1830, 1 on account of cruelty; 1833, 1 on account of adultery, 1 for cruelty, and 1 for desertion; 1836, 1 for cruelty; 1837, 1 for cruelty; 1838, 5 for cruelty; 1839, 1 for cruelty; 1840, 1 for cruelty; 1841, 1 for adultery and 1 for cruelty; 1842, 1 for cruelty and 1 for desertion; in 1843, 1 for desertion; 1844, 1 for adultery, 1 for cruelty, and 1 for desertion; 1845, 2 for cruelty; 1846, 4 for adultery and 1 for

cruelty; 1847, 3 for cruelty; 1848, 1 for cruelty; 1849, 1 for adultery, 1 for cruelty, and 1 for desertion; 1850, 1 for adultery, 4 for cruelty, and 2 for desertion; 1851, 1 for adultery and 4 for cruelty; 1852, 5 for adultery, 4 for cruelty, and 1 for desertion; 1853, 4 for adultery, 3 for cruelty, and 4 for desertion; 1854, 6 for adultery, 9 for cruelty, and 1 for desertion; 1855, 7 for adultery and 5 for cruelty; in 1856, 7 for adultery, 9 for cruelty, and 2 for desertion; 1857, 16 for adultery and 15 for cruelty; 1858, 10 for adultery and 16 for cruelty; 1859, 10 for adultery and 6 for cruelty; and, in 1860, 4 for adultery and 3 for cruelty. Total number of petitions for judicial separation arising out of acts of adultery 79, of cruelty 101, of desertion 15; total, 195.

The number of petitions for restitution of conjugal rights, in which the parties to the suits separated previous and subsequent to the passing of the Divorce and Matrimonial Causes Act were as follows:—In 1839, 2 petitions; 1843, 1; 1853, 2; 1855, 2; 1856, 1; 1857, 7; 1858, 12; 1859, 4; 1860, 1; total, 32.

The number of petitions for nullity of marriage, in which the alleged marriages were celebrated previous and subsequent to the passing of the Divorce and Matrimonial Causes Act was as follows:—In 1834, 1 petition; 1839, 2; 1840, 1; 1851, 1; 1852, 2; 1854, 1; 1855, 1; 1857, 2; 1858, 1; 1859, 1; total, 13.

The number of applications for protection of wife's property, in which the desertion took place previous and subsequent to the passing of the Divorce and Matrimonial Causes Act was as follows:—In 1819, 1 application; 1824, 1; 1825, 1; 1827, 1; 1833, 1; 1834, 4; 1835, 1; 1836, 5; 1837, 1; 1838, 2; 1839, 2; 1841, 2; 1842, 1; 1843, 3; 1844, 1; 1845, 1; 1846, 2; 1847, 2; 1849, 3; 1850, 7; 1851, 6; 1852, 4; 1853, 4; 1854, 5; 1855, 7; 1856, 3; 1857, 4; 1858, 6; 1859, 2; 1860, 2; total, 85.

The number of cases in which dissolutions have been decreed, and in which they have been refused, from 11th January, 1858, to 21st August, 1860:—Dissolutions decreed, 239; dissolutions refused, 19.

The number of cases for dissolution of marriage undefended at the trial thereof, from 11th January, 1858, to 21st August, 1861, 212.

The number of cases set down for trial on the 21st August, 1860, for dissolution of marriage, 141.

JUDICIAL STATISTICS, SCOTLAND.

Tables of Criminal Offenders for the Year 1859.

THE number of persons charged with offences in Scotland exhibited a decrease as compared with 1858 of 310, or 8·196 per cent. In the counties of Aberdeen, Argyll, Berwick, Bute, Elgin and Moray, Linlithgow, Selkirk and Stirling, there was an increase of 131, or 23·476 per cent. The number committed for trial or bailed in 1859, was 3,472, viz.:—2,402 males and 1,070 females. The number tried was 2,846, and of these there were convicted, outlawed, or found insane, 2,589. The proportions of convictions to committals, in 1858, was 76·441 per cent.; in 1859, it was 74·568 per cent. The proportion of acquittals to committals, in 1858, was 23·559 per cent.; in 1859, it was 25·432 per cent. There were in 1859, 956 persons charged with offences against the person; 312 with offences against property

committed with violence; 1,783 with offences against property committed without violence; 47 with malicious offences against property; 80 with forgery and offences against currency; and 293 with other offences, not included in the above classes. As compared with 1858, the offences against the person have decreased 18·360 per cent.; the offences against property with violence, 28·863 per cent.; malicious offences against property, 49·462 per cent.; forgery and offences against currency, 12·087 per cent. While on the other hand other offences not included in the above classes, have increased 15·810 per cent.; and offences against property without violence, 2·825 per cent. In 1859, 442 males, and 281 females, could neither read nor write; 1,332 males and 687 females could read and write imperfectly; 541 males, and 91 females, could read and write well, and 67 males and 7 females had a superior education. In 1858, the number committed who could neither read nor write, was 809; in 1859, 723; hence a decrease of 86 or 10·630 per cent.; of those who could read and write imperfectly, of 217 or 9·704 per cent.; of those who could read and write well, there was an increase of 12, or 1·935 per cent.; and of those who had a superior education, there was a decrease of 9, or 10·843 per cent. The results of the proceedings in the commitments made in 1859, were as follows:—Discharged without trial, 618; acquitted on trial, not guilty, 45; not proven, 217; found insane, 3; found guilty, 2,563; outlawed, 26: total committed, 3,472. The sentences were as follows:—To penal servitude for life, 1; above 15 years, 2; 15 years, and above 10, 9; 10 years, and above 6, 59; 6 years, and above 4, 37; 4 years, 83; 3 years, 22. Imprisonment under 2 and above 1 year, 132; under 1, and above 6 months, 318; 6 months, and above 3, 423; 3 months, and above 1, 570; 1 month, and under, 661; detained in reformatory schools, 5; whipped, &c., &c., 217.

JUDICIAL STATISTICS, IRELAND.

Tables showing the Number of Persons committed or held to Bail in 1859.

THE number of persons committed for trial at assizes and quarter sessions in 1859 was 5,865, being a reduction of 7·02 per cent. on the committals of the previous year.

The total number of persons charged with offences against the person under class 1, in 1859, was 2,242, against 2,058 in 1858. In 1859, 45 persons were sent for trial charged with "murder," against 36 in 1858, but only 2 parties were in 1859 charged with "attempts to murder;" whilst in 1858, 26 persons were committed for this crime. "Manslaughter," in 1859, amounted to 102, and in the previous year to 125. Rape, and other crimes against female chastity, appear to have increased considerably during the year just passed, as no less than 112 persons were committed for such offences, against 73 in the previous year, 1858. "Assaults" also showed an increase in 1859 over 1858, viz., 1,853 against 1,677.

The total number of persons charged with offences against property committed with violence, under class 2, in 1859, was 398, against 432 in 1858. In this section the crimes which exhibited in 1859 such an increase over 1858 as to be worthy of notice, were, "Breaking into houses and stealing," 24 against 10; and "assaults with intent to rob," 14 against 8: whilst

"burglary" fell from 105 in 1858 to 95 in 1859; and "taking and holding forcible possession," from 199 in 1858 to 162 in 1859.

The total number of persons charged with offences against property committed without violence, under class 3, in 1859, was 1,887, against 2,325 in 1858. Of the eighteen crimes included in this class, nine showed a return in 1859 considerably under that of 1858, including the several kinds of "larceny," "embezzlement," "receiving of stolen goods," and "frauds and attempts to defraud." "Cattle and horse stealing" increased somewhat in 1859, as compared with 1858; but "sheep stealing" afforded a return of only 54 against 69 in the previous year.

The total number of persons charged with malicious offences against property, under class 4, in 1859, was 90, against 84 in 1858. In this class there was an increase in 1859 as compared with 1858 in "Arson, capital," viz., 32 against 27, and "other malicious offences," for which only 4 persons were committed in 1858, and so many as 28 in 1859. "Attempts to commit arson" gave a return of 9 in the year just passed, against nil in 1858; but on the other hand, 9 persons were charged in 1858 with riot and feloniously demolishing buildings, whilst in 1859 no parties were so charged.

The total number of persons charged with forgery and offences against the currency, under class 5, in 1859, was 73, against 66 in 1858. The several headings in this class exhibited a decrease in 1859 as compared with 1858, with the exception of "counterfeiting the current gold and silver coin," which gave a return of 9 committals in 1859, against 5 in 1858, and "buying," &c., of same, increased from 44 in 1858 to 47 in 1859.

The total number of persons charged with offences not included in the above classes, comprised under class 6, in 1859, was 1,175 against 1,343 in 1858. The most notable reductions in 1859 as compared with 1858 in this section, occurred under the headings "assembling armed unlawfully," 20 against 51; "perjury," 11 against 27; "administering unlawful oaths," 1 against 5; "riot," 630 against 704; "keeping disorderly houses," 10 against 18; "vagrancy," 2 against 6; and unclassified misdemeanor, 222 against 286. On the other hand, 8 persons were sent for trial in 1859, for combination as to wages, against 1 in the previous year, and for unclassified felonies, 127 were committed in 1859, and but 78 in 1858. The convictions in 1859, were 3,109, or 53·01 per cent. of the committals, viz. 5,865. Of the 2,756 persons not convicted in 1859, in 482 cases there were no prosecutions; in 836 no bill found; 1,337 parties were declared not guilty on trial; 67 were bailed and not tried; 12 were found insane on arraignment; and 9 persons acquitted as being insane. In 13 cases the circumstances of acquittal were not returned. The sentences were, 2 to death, 1 penal servitude for life, 2 penal servitude for 15 and above 10 years; 52 for 10 years and above 6 years; 20 for 6 and above 4 years; 135 for 4 years; 106 for 3 years and under; 1 for imprisonment for 3 and above 2 years; 103 for 3 and above 2 years; 387 for 2 and above 1 year; 1,615 for 1 year, and above 6 months; 1,615 for 6 months and under; 529, whipping, fined, or discharged; and 156 sentences respited and pardon.

The falling off in female crime in 1859, was much greater in proportion to their number than that of males, being 12·31 per cent. in females, and 5·23 per cent. in males, whilst in 1858, compared with 1857, the males declined 13·74 per cent., and the females only 8·67 per cent. The committals for trial in 1859 included a proportionably higher number of persons

who could "read and write," than in any year from 1853, viz., 30·37; the highest per-centage in any other of these years being 28·21 in 1857. The proportion was, 30·37 per cent., read and write; 13·49 per cent., read only; 34·58 per cent., neither read nor write; 21·56 per cent., instruction not ascertained.

The ages of the persons sent for trial at assizes and sessions in 1859 were as follows:—16 years and under, 273; 21 years and above 16, 1,105; 30 years and under 21, 1,985; 40 years and under 30, 769; 50 years and under 40, 355; 60 years and under 50, 143; above 60 years, 83; and of 1,154 the age could not be ascertained. A constant decline was observable in juvenile prisoners, i. e., prisoners not exceeding 16 years of age; in 1855 they numbered 556 males and 175 females; in 1856, 384 males and 130 females; in 1857, 376 males and 111 females; in 1858, 233 males and 69 females; and in 1859, 203 males and 70 females. The total of committals in 1859 was in the proportion of 1 to every 1,117 of the population; in 1858, it was 1 in every 1,039; in 1857, 1 in every 909; in 1856, 1 in every 923; and in 1855, 1 in every 727 of the population. With reference to sexes the highest proportional number of male committals in 1859, occurred in Mayo, viz., 1 in every 336 inhabitants, whilst the lowest occurred in Waterford County, viz., 1 in every 2,508. On the whole of Ireland, the proportion of male committals was 1 in every 715 of that sex, whilst in females, the proportion was as low as 1 in 2,396, ranging however from 1 in every 11,989 in Waterford County, to 1 in every 1,053 of that sex in Sligo County.

CORONER.

Report of the Committee of the House of Commons appointed to consider the State of the Law and Practice as regards the taking of Inquisitions in cases of Death; and the Remuneration now paid to Coroners; and whether it is expedient that any and what Alterations should be made in the Manner in which such Remuneration is now made; and to consider the Effect and Operation of the Statutes now in force upon that subject. (193.)

THE committee was appointed the 7th March, 1860, and on the 9th it was nominated as follows:—Mr. Edwin James, Sir George Lewis, Mr. Lowe, Sir James Graham, Mr. Cobbett, Mr. Montagu Smith, Mr. Pease, Mr. Fenwick, Sir William Miles, Mr. John Locke, Mr. Kekewich, Mr. Dutton, Mr. George, Mr. Philipps, and Major Stuart.

The committee sat four days, and examined Mr. John Humphreys, coroner for the county of Middlesex; Mr. Sergeant William Payne, coroner for London and Southwark; Mr. Horatio Waddington, of the Home Office; Sir Richard Bulkeley, M.P.; Mr. William Scurfield Grey, magistrate in the county of Durham; Mr. Henry Pownall, chairman of quarter sessions for the county of Middlesex; and Mr. Henry M. Hemshead, chairman of the finance committee of the Middlesex magistrates; and on the 30th March, 1860, the committee reported as follows:—

The labours of the committee have been considerably lightened by the perusal of the report and evidence of the recent commission on the costs of prosecutions, the expenses of coroners' inquests, &c. The committee have thought it unnecessary to go again over ground so lately trodden, and have therefore restricted their inquiry within narrower limits than they would

otherwise have done. They propose to inquire—1st. On what information the coroner ought to act; 2ndly. In what cases he ought to hold inquests; 3rdly. How he ought to be remunerated; 4thly. Whether any improvement can be suggested in the manner of electing coroners; 5thly. Whether any improvement can be made in the summoning of jurors.

First.—On what information the coroner ought to act.

The commission on the expenses of prosecutions recommend, "That the coroner shall, in future, hold an inquest in every case in which he is called upon to do so by a person duly authorized in that behalf, and *in those cases only.*" The committee cannot agree in this recommendation. The coroner differs from all other judicial officers in this, that he initiates his own proceedings, while other judicial officers must wait till the matter for their adjudication be brought before them. The committee are unwilling to deprive the coroner of the initiative. The evidence shows that confidential or even anonymous communications to the coroner frequently originate inquiries of the highest value to the public. It is far better that inquests should occasionally be held unnecessarily than that the chances of detecting great crimes should be diminished; and the committee are therefore of opinion that it is not expedient to interfere with the discretion which has from time immemorial been vested in the coroner.

Secondly.—In what cases inquests should be held.

There appears to be a conflict of opinion in many counties between the coroners and the magistrates as to the cases in which inquests should be held. The coroners contend that an inquest should be held in every case of violent, or, to use the expression of Lord Hale, of "unnatural" death; while, on the other hand, it is contended that no inquest should be held unless some suspicion exists that the death was caused by the wilful act of the deceased, or of some other person, or by negligence. It is very desirable that the law should be settled on so important a subject; and the committee therefore recommend that a bill should be introduced declaring the law. They believe it to be desirable that an inquest should be held in every case of violent or unnatural death, and also that an inquest should be held in cases of sudden death where the cause of death is unknown, and also where, though the death is apparently natural, reasonable suspicion of criminality exists. They would also wish to continue the rule which requires that an inquest should be held on any prisoner dying, from whatever cause, in the precincts of a gaol. The committee recommend that in the same Act should be inserted a clause, modelled upon the 5th clause of the 11th and 12th Vict., c. 44, to give a summary application to a judge of the Court of Queen's Bench for a rule, calling upon any coroner refusing to hold an inquest, to show cause why such inquest should not be held. The Act should entrust the power of applying for a rule to compel the coroner to hold an inquest to the Attorney-General. The committee would also recommend that power should be given by the same Act to the Home Secretary to make regulations, binding on the county police, as to the information which they are to afford to the coroner, so that the practice may become uniform throughout the country.

Thirdly.—How the coroner ought to be remunerated.

By the 25 Geo. 2, c. 29, it is enacted, "That upon every inquisition (not taken upon the view of a body dying in a gaol or prison), which shall be duly taken in England by any coroner, the sum of 20s. shall be paid to him by order of the justices of the peace, in their general or quarter

sessions assembled, for the county, riding, division, or liberty where such an inquisition shall have been taken, or the major part of them." On this Act it has been decided that the justices are the judges whether the inquest is duly taken, and that the inquest is not duly taken if it is taken under circumstances under which no inquest was necessary. Hence the magistrates have the power, which they often use, of disallowing the fee for an inquest whenever they disapprove of the act of the coroner in holding it. The magistrates and the coroners, as has been said, often differ very widely as to their view of the law, and in many counties contests have arisen, the existence of which is greatly to be regretted. The coroners complain that they are unduly checked in the exercise of their duty. The magistrates assert that, as vigilant guardians of the county rates, they are bound to restrain the holding of inquests within due limits. The committee think that it is of the utmost importance to the preservation of life and the detection of crime, that inquests should be held in all cases of violent or unnatural, and also in all cases of sudden death, when the cause of death is unknown, and also where, though the death is apparently natural, reasonable suspicion of criminality exists. The commissioners on the costs of prosecution have recommended that the coroners should be paid by salary; but they did not make this recommendation without depriving the coroners of all discretion as to the taking or not taking of inquests. The committee have not been able to agree with the commission as to depriving the coroner of this discretion, but they do agree with the commission in thinking that the coroner ought to be paid by salary.

Your committee are of opinion that the justices in quarter sessions assembled shall fix the salaries of the coroners in their respective counties, and that the fees actually received by coroners for the last seven years would constitute a satisfactory rule for the general guidance of the justices in fixing the salaries.

If in any particular case the salary awarded to the coroner should appear to be inadequate and disproportioned to the annual salaries of other coroners exercising like duties, a power shall be given to the Home Secretary to revise it so far as to make it proportionate to the general scale of salaries. Provision should also be made for a periodical revision, if after the lapse of years the duties of the office in any district shall have increased, or diminished, beyond what might have been reasonably expected when the salary was fixed.

The mileage may be still kept under the jurisdiction of the justices, which will have a quarterly inspection by them of the work actually performed by the coroner, whilst at the same time it secures a court through which complaints, either of negligence or over-zeal in discharge of his duties, may be made.

Fourthly.—Election of Coroners.

The election of coroners is regulated by the 7 and 8 Vict., c. 92, which repeals absolutely the 58 Geo. 3, which regulated the election of coroner in counties. The Act of Victoria gives the Queen in Council power to divide counties into districts for the purpose of the election of coroner, and then regulates the election for districts so divided. It follows, that whenever no such division has taken place, no Act of Parliament is applicable; not the Act of Geo. 3, for that is repealed by the Act of Victoria; and not the Act of Victoria, for that is applicable only to districts formed under the powers which it contains. The committee recommend the intro-

[27]

duction of a bill to make uniform provision for all elections of coroners for counties. They think that the ancient constituency of freeholders extending below 40s. should be abolished, and replaced by the Parliamentary constituency for counties. This would provide a register, and save much inquiry and trouble. The committee recommend that the duration of elections should be limited to one day, and that the practice should, as far as possible, be assimilated to Parliamentary elections.

Fifthly.—Summoning of Jurors.

It appears from the evidence that there is no statutable regulation of the mode in which coroners' juries are summoned; and the practice varies in different counties. In all, there is no qualification fixed by law; in some, the jurors are paid for their attendance on each adjournment: in others, they receive no remuneration; and, when a fee is given, it varies in amount according to the usage in different localities.

Under the existing law there is no security that the jury now summoned by the coroner is impartial, and competent to the adequate discharge of the duty.

The committee are of opinion, that the jury list of each county, as now regulated by statute, is the list from which coroners' juries ought to be drawn. Attendance on due summons at inquests held in the neighbourhoods, of ten jurors, is less onerous than attendance at the assizes; it is the performance of a duty incumbent on those qualified, and it ought to be discharged gratuitously, as well at quarter sessions as at assizes.

The committee have considered the Act 9 and 10 Vict. c. 37, which regulates the office of coroner in Ireland. The Act seems to be framed with care. The elections are by the same constituency, and conducted in the same manner as Parliamentary elections for counties, and the committee have not thought it necessary to recommend any alteration in the law of coroner for Ireland.

The bill which the committee recommend, would therefore contain:

1st. A declaration of the cases in which coroners' inquests ought to be held.

2nd. A clause empowering the Attorney-General to make application to a judge in chambers for a rule calling on the coroner to show cause why he does not hold an inquest.

3rd. A clause empowering the Secretary of State for the Home Department to make rules binding on the county police as to the information they are to give to coroners.

4th. Clauses giving a power to justices to fix the salaries of coroners for counties. Appeal to Home Secretary, and provision for periodical revision.

5th. Clauses assimilating, as far as possible, the election for coroners for counties to the election of a member of Parliament for a county.

6th. Clauses directing that the coroners' jurors be henceforth indifferently summoned from the jury lists of their respective counties; and that all payment to jurors for attendance on inquests be prohibited.

CIVIL SERVICE.

Sixth Report of her Majesty's Civil Service Commissioners.

THE mode of nominating and examining candidates for junior appointments in the civil service having been inquired into by a Committee of the House of Commons, and the report having been adopted by her Majesty's Government, a preliminary test examination was decided upon by the Civil Service Commissioners. The mode suggested by the Lords of the Treasury for carrying out the proposal was detailed as follows in a letter by the Hon. H. Brand, M.P., to the Commissioners:—

My lords are of opinion that, of the two plans proposed for carrying out such preliminary test examination, the more convenient arrangement, as far as concerns the appointments under their lordships' control, will be that a number of duly qualified candidates should be from time to time nominated for examination; and with this view my lords propose to nominate such candidates as they shall select by forwarding their names to you, as at liberty to undergo the test examination for one or more of the departments under their lordships' control.

My lords would suggest that the candidates so nominated should be required to attend within one month from the date of their nomination to undergo the preliminary test examination, at such time and place as you may direct; and that, should you see fit, one day or two days in each week might be set apart as those upon which candidates, duly nominated, should be at liberty to attend at your office for examination.

Should you think it expedient to adopt this suggestion, their lordships would request to be informed of the arrangements most convenient to you for carrying it out, in order that effect may be given to it without delay.

While adopting, however, the plan of forming a list of qualified candidates, my lords will reserve to themselves the power, should circumstances render it desirable, of selecting candidates who have not passed the preliminary test, to be nominated with others who have already passed it, as competitors for any vacancies which may arise, provided that in all cases candidates so nominated shall first pass the test and duly qualify themselves for competition.

It will be for their lordships to take steps to prevent any erroneous belief on the part of candidates who have passed the test that they have thereby acquired a claim to be nominated for competition; but, with the view of further removing such an impression, my lords would request that a report of the result of all test examinations should be furnished to them, rather than that any certificate or other document should be given to the successful candidates.

My lords concur in opinion with you that in the preliminary test examination the subjects which may be more properly termed educational may be dispensed with, the preliminary test being made thoroughly effective in the more necessary subjects of orthography, handwriting, arithmetic, and English composition, as also in Latin and in book-keeping, where the regulations require a knowledge of those subjects.*

Their lordships are, however, disposed to doubt whether in the competitive examination any addition should be made to the subjects at present prescribed, except with the entire sanction and approval of the heads of the different departments; and they consider that the same approval should be obtained before a candidate is allowed to substitute any one or more of the subjects mentioned by you for subjects now prescribed under the sanction of the heads of departments.

My lords entirely agree with you in thinking that it will be inexpedient to carry out the recommendation of the committee that the necessary moral and physical qualifications of candidates should in all cases be ascertained previously to their being submitted to the required educational test, but at the same time their lordships will comply with your suggestion, that all candidates should be desired to bring with them *prima facie* evidence of age, health, and character, including references to the parties of whom subsequent inquiries are to be made.

With regard to the suggestion of the committee that a small fee be required from candidates to defray the expenses of test examinations, and to the other questions which you have raised, such as, whether any rules might be laid down for restricting the number of nominations to be allowed to a candidate for the test and competitive examination, my lords

* There are some clerkships in the gift of the Treasury for which the prescribed subjects are more numerous than those for the Customs and Excise. For such clerkships the preliminary test examination will require to be less limited.

are not at present disposed to offer a decided opinion, and they would prefer that, should it be hereafter found desirable to lay down any specific rules on these points, their adoption should be postponed until further experience shall have been obtained as to the practical effects of the system which it is now proposed to initiate."

The Commissioners then entered into the negotiations opened with other boards and Government offices, for the extension of the system of examination, and afterwards proceeded as follows :—

The existing relations of this country with China and Japan has rendered it necessary to send there a certain number of young men to be employed as interpreters. In reference to this matter, Lord J. Russell has communicated to us his wishes with respect to the examinations and other conditions to be prescribed for candidates for these offices. He desired that the examinations should be directed rather to the capacity of acquiring knowledge than to the extent of knowledge; that he attaches much importance to *précis*-writing as a test for this purpose; that he does not intend that the Chinese language should be a subject of examination, having regard to the information which he has received with respect to the influence which such knowledge acquired out of China is likely to have on the study of the language in China; that he thinks it desirable that attention should be paid to steadiness of character, habits of application, and good bodily health; and that being aware that the probability of acquiring such a language as the Chinese must necessarily be increased if the study of it be commenced at an early age, he has proposed as the limits of age, from 16 years complete to 20, the latter limit being for special reasons extended to 25 for this occasion only.

Lord J. Russell proposes to nominate above 30 candidates to compete for 10 appointments, *i.e.* eight for China and two for Japan, and we perceive that in furtherance of this intention his lordship has placed himself in communication with the authorities of the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge and other educational institutions, and has invited them to send to him the names of candidates.

With regard to the subordinate offices of messenger, office-keeper, usher, &c., some differences of opinion have arisen between various heads of departments and this commission, as to the limits, and especially as to the higher limit, of age which it is desirable to fix.

These offices have, until recently, been frequently bestowed on persons who have been in domestic service, in which the duties are analogous to those which are required to be performed. It is not to be wondered at, that the natural desire to provide for faithful and long-tried servants, has often led to the appointment of persons advanced in life to these offices, who, although able and willing to fulfil these duties in the first instance, become in a few years unfit for their active discharge.

The objection to the appointment of persons to such situations who are 40 years of age, is not only that they will come on the superannuation list after a much shorter period of years than would be the case if they were appointed earlier in life; for this objection is in part neutralized by their superannuation allowances, which depend on their length of service, being of less amount than they would otherwise have obtained; but the main objection is that the superannuation allowances, to which they would thus become entitled if they retired at the age when their strength and activity are insufficient for their duties, are not enough for their support, and accordingly there is a motive, which it is very difficult to resist, to

retain inefficient servants, and to let the continuance of their inefficient services operate to swell the amount of their superannuation allowances.

In this way one of the most important objects of the Superannuation Act, that of relieving the heads of departments from all inducement to keep in the service those who are too infirm for their duties, is frustrated.

The statistics of this commission brought up to the commencement of the present year show the following results:—

The total number of nominations to situations to which the Order in Council has been applied is as follows:—1855-6 (19 months), 3,495; 1857, 2,189; 1858, 2,258; 1859, 2,918;* 1860, 2,631: total, 13,491.

Of these nominations the following were nominations of one candidate only:—1855-6 (19 months), 3,037; 1857, 1,838; 1858, 1,425; 1859, 1,739; 1860, 1,923: total, 9,962.

The number of persons nominated as competitors and of the situations for which they were to compete have been:—1855-6 (19 months), 458 competitors for 109 situations; 1857, 351 competitors for 106 situations; 1858, 833 competitors for 258 situations; 1859, 1,179* competitors for 259 situations; 1860, 708 competitors for 242 situations: total, 3,529 competitors for 974 situations.

Of these 708 competitors in 1860, there are 48 who obtained places in the respective competitions sufficiently high to bring them within the number of situations competed for, and who would have received appointments had they not failed in particular subjects; the subjects in which they have failed being, except in four cases, of a practical character. Thus, 18 have failed either in book-keeping or account-states; 10 either in arithmetic, orthography, or handwriting; 16 in one or more of these practical subjects and likewise in other subjects; one in précis only; one in trigonometry only; one in Latin only; and one in history and likewise in geography.

The certificates and rejections in non-competitive examinations have been: 1855-6 (19 months), 1,587 certificates and 880 rejections; 1857, 1,311 certificates and 490 rejections; 1858, 960 certificates and 292 rejections; 1859, 1,260 certificates and 310 rejections; 1860, 1,469 certificates and 317 rejections: total, 6,587 certificates and 2,289 rejections.

Out of the total number of candidates rejected (2,289), all but 220 have failed either in arithmetic or in spelling; some, of course, in other subjects also.

The cases in which nominees have been considered ineligible in respect of age, health, and character, have been as follows:—1855-7, 218 for age, 42 for health, and 35 for character; 1858, 59 for age, 23 for health, and 20 for character; 1859, 66 for age, 16 for health, and 21 for character; 1860, 42 for age, 30 for health, and 31 for character: total, 385 for age, 111 for health, and 107 for character.

The number of competitive examinations conducted during the year 1860 was 80; and by those examinations 196 situations were filled up. The total number of competitors actually examined was 603; and of the 407 who were unsuccessful, 319 were not considered to have passed examinations which would have entitled them to certificates if they had presented themselves with absolute nominations.

The number of honorary certificates granted in successive years have been as follows:—1855-6 (19 months), 228; 1857, 159; 1858, 174; 1859, 182; 1860, 149: total, 892.

The foregoing results appear to call for little remark on our part. The proportion of rejections to certificates in non-competitive examinations seems

* Including 391 persons who competed for nine writerships in the India Office.

to have a tendency to diminish. It was in 1857 rather more than one-third; in 1858 rather less than one-third; in 1859, one-fourth; and in 1860 less than that proportion. We continue to think that this may be safely regarded as indicating increased acquirements in the candidates, and not any laxity in our own proceedings. We venture to state this with less diffidence, for we certainly perceive in the performance of the candidates who pass, especially in spelling and arithmetic, considerable improvement.

The results of the competitive examinations show that in a considerable number of instances, the candidates have obtained nine-tenths and more of the total marks in spelling, and more than two-thirds of the maximum in arithmetic; and that some candidates, even for the less important clerkships, have been absolutely faultless in their orthography.

We do not suppose it to be possible that in the multitude of questions which are required to be framed, in order to prevent unfair foreknowledge on the part of candidates, there may not be some which are open to just objection: but we believe that in general they will be found to correspond with the state of knowledge and instruction of those classes of persons who are called upon to answer them. It is certain that the more intelligent candidates in our examinations are able to answer a large proportion of the questions, and that there are but few questions which have not been answered by some of the candidates.

In support, moreover, of this statement we must again refer to the tables of competitive examinations in the appendix, showing the number of marks obtained by the successful candidates in all the different subjects in which they were examined. As respects geography and history there are a considerable number of successful candidates who have got two-thirds of the maximum of marks for these subjects. We may also refer to the long list of candidates who have obtained honorary certificates for subjects in which they have voluntarily offered themselves for examination.

Examinations for the Civil Service of India.

The open competitive examination for the civil service of India took place in July last. The large number, 80, of these valuable appointments offered for competition on that occasion led us to expect a considerable increase in the number of candidates beyond those in former years; but only 154 presented themselves for examination.

It is not difficult, however, to account for the number being thus limited, partly by the discouraging events in India in the previous years, partly by the slow diffusion of information as to the means and opportunities of obtaining these appointments, and partly by the countervailing prospects open to industrious and intelligent young men both at the universities, and in the Artillery and Engineers, especially in the latter, since open competition has been introduced.

The first two of these causes will gradually cease to be operative; and accordingly we find in the present year more candidates than in 1860; and the institution, at Oxford and Cambridge, and other universities, and public places of education, of courses of study corresponding to the requirements of the further examination of selected candidates, shows that the subject is receiving, from the public at large, the attention it deserves.

It is gratifying to us to find that, as in former years, the successful candidates continue for the most part to be those who have been trained at the universities, and we think that it is fair to state that the Irish universities, as

has been the case at previous examinations, send us candidates who do credit to the system of instruction and to the professors at those institutions. No less than thirteen of the successful candidates came from Trinity College, Dublin, and amongst them the 5th, 6th, 7th, and 8th in the order of merit. Five proceeded from Queen's College, Belfast, including the 4th in order of merit, and one from Queen's College, Galway. We ought to add that eight successful candidates have come from Scotland.

It may not be uninteresting to observe in which institutions the candidates most distinguished in particular branches had been educated :—In English composition, the best two were from Trinity College, Dublin, and the University of Melbourne. In English literature, the best was from Queen's College, Belfast; the second from North London Collegiate School. In classics, the best was from Corpus Christi College, Oxford; the second from Oriel College, Oxford; the third from Trinity College, Dublin. In mathematics, the best was from Queen's College, Belfast; the second from Queen's College, Galway; the third from Trinity College, Dublin. In natural science, the best was from Queen's College, Belfast; the second from Queen's College, Galway; the third from Trinity College, Dublin. In moral science, the best was from Aberdeen University; the second from Corpus Christi College, Oxford. In Sanskrit, the best was from Trinity College, Dublin; the second from St. Paul's School; the third from Queen's College, Belfast. In aggregate of merit, the first was from Corpus Christi College, Oxford: the second from the University of Aberdeen; the third from the University of Melbourne.

We are able also to state that those of the 80 successful candidates who, according to their marks, occupy a low position in the list, have not only done sufficiently well to justify our belief in their intelligence, and our confidence in their future industry, but in several instances have shown considerable proficiency in particular subjects.

We have watched with some anxiety that portion of the arrangements relating to the Indian civil servants which obliges the successful candidates at the competitive examination to undergo the further or pass examination after the interval of twelve months. This further special examination in 1860, including the selected candidates of 1859, took place in July last. As respects eight of these, they showed themselves so deficient in knowledge of some of the subjects prescribed that we were reluctantly obliged to refuse to give them our certificate. In discharging this duty, painful to ourselves and to those who were the subjects of it, we felt that it would nevertheless furnish a most useful and effective stimulus to future selected candidates, who would thus be fully convinced that their second examination would not be merely a matter of form, and that unless they made a proper use of the year allotted to them for this purpose, and acquired the rudiments of those branches of knowledge which are requisite to prepare them for their duties in India, they might run the risk of losing the benefit of their previous success. It was originally contemplated, as one of the regulations in reference to the candidates for the civil service of India, that any selected candidate who did not pass at the second examination should be struck off the list of selected candidates; but in the correspondence which took place between the department of the Secretary of State for India and this commission on the subject, Lord Stanley, then Secretary of State for India, intimated his opinion that this would be too severe a penalty, and that he would prefer the rule to be in the following terms:—"No candidate will be

allowed to proceed to India until he shall have passed the further examination, or after he has completed his 24th year."

This rule, which gave to a candidate, if within the limit of age, an opportunity of recovering his lost time, was accordingly adopted, and was subsequently rendered more indulgent, as regards candidates selected in 1859, by substituting the maximum age of 25 for 24.

Upon finding ourselves unable to grant certificates to the eight selected candidates alluded to, we communicated the circumstance to the Secretary of State for India (Sir C. Wood), requesting his decision whether these candidates should be permitted to present themselves again, and if so, whether in July next with the selected candidates who were to be examined in the present year, or at some earlier intermediate period. Sir C. Wood decided that these eight candidates, or such of them as we should think worthy of the indulgence, should be allowed another opportunity of proving their fitness for admission into the service, provided they should be within the prescribed age at the time of the next examination, but that a second rejection should be final. He was also of opinion that this further examination should be delayed till the ordinary further examination in July next, and that they should take rank according to their place in this second examination.

The difficulty of selecting the proper works for assisting the selected candidate in his legal studies will be, to a great extent, removed by the publication of the Criminal Code and the Code of Criminal Procedure, which it is expected will soon form part of the law of India. We propose that at future examinations the selected candidates shall be examined in these codes. As regards the former, substantially the work of the late Lord Macaulay, it is certain that it will furnish the student with sound principles of criminal jurisprudence; and as respects both, that the thorough acquaintance with them which results from careful study, tested by examination, will be found of the greatest practical value in enabling the selected candidates to learn and to perform the duties of magistrates at an early period after the commencement of their service.

In concluding our remarks on the portion of our proceedings which relates to the Indian civil service, we think it right to notice the gradual increase which is taking place in universities and colleges of the study of Sanskrit.

In the competitive examination of 1860, about one fourth of the 80 successful candidates had taken up Sanskrit, and some of them showed considerable proficiency in that language, and in the competitive examination about to take place in July next 34 candidates have signified their intention to take up Sanskrit.

Although we have been desirous not to tempt persons into any special study for these competitions, and have accordingly not included the vernacular languages of India as elements of these examinations; yet, believing in the value of the study of Sanskrit as an exercise for the intellectual powers, and as forming a basis for the study of languages as a science, we think that the introduction of this language as one of the subjects of literary education in colleges and universities may be regarded as satisfactory in itself, whilst it certainly will be useful to those who may be looking forward to become candidates for the civil service of India.

The report was signed by Sir Edward Ryan and Sir John George Shaw Lefevre.

EDUCATION.

Report of the Committee of the Privy Council on Education for the Year 1860.

DURING the year 1860, as compared with 1859, the number of schools, or of departments of schools under separate teachers, which were actually inspected, was increased by 848, and the number of children by 82,801; the number of pupil teachers, by 311; of certificated teachers, by 833; of students in training to become schoolmasters and schoolmistresses, by 32; capitation grants were paid on 14,315 more children; 229 new school-houses were built, comprising (besides class-rooms) 358 principal school-rooms and 203 dwellings for teachers; 187 other schools were enlarged, improved, or furnished afresh; accommodation was created for 52,227 children, exclusive of the schools improved or newly furnished, but not enlarged.

During 1860, sixty inspectors, including twenty-four assistant inspectors, were employed in visiting schools and in holding examinations. They visited 10,403 daily schools or departments of such schools under separate teachers. They found present in them 962,932 children; 7,249 certificated teachers; and 14,949 apprentices. Of the schools or departments, 2,260 were for boys only; 2,214 for girls only; in 4,452 boys and girls were instructed together; 1,477 were confined to infants (children under seven years of age). Of the children, 531,643 were males, and 431,289 were females. The preponderance in number of the schools for children of both sexes over separate schools arises from the fact that this organization is almost universal among the Presbyterian schools in Scotland, and prevails largely among the schools of Protestant Dissenters in England and Wales; not to mention that it is necessarily adopted in many parts of the country, when the means to maintain two teachers are wanting. The inspectors also visited thirty-eight separate training colleges, occupied by 2,826 students in preparation for the office of schoolmaster or schoolmistress. In December last these students and 8,826 other candidates were simultaneously examined for the end of the first, second, or third years of their training, or for admission, or for certificates as acting teachers. The inspectors also visited 426 schools for pauper children, containing 27,728 inmates, and 72 ragged or industrial schools, containing 6,172 inmates.

By an Act of last Session (23 and 24 Vict. c. 108) the Secretary of State for the Home Department was substituted for the Committee of the Privy Council on Education to exercise the powers given by the Industrial Schools Act of 1857 (20 and 21 Vict. c. 48). From the end of the financial year 1860-1 the schools certified under the latter Act will cease to be chargeable for inspection or maintenance to the grant for public education, and will become chargeable to that for law and justice. A similar course will be taken with the industrial schools in Scotland which are sanctioned under the Act 17 and 18 Vict. c. 74. This Act (Dunlop's) was passed in 1854. It empowers the Secretary of State, not the Committee of Council, to sanction schools for its purposes. But the fund made chargeable was the grant for public education, and the inspectors of schools, as well as the inspectors of prisons, visited the establishments sanctioned. In 1857 the inspection of reformatory schools was assigned to one only of the prison inspectors as his separate province; and, from that date, the concurrence of

the Committee of Council's inspectors has been prolonged only because the fund administered by the Committee of Council supplied the grants. Henceforth, the schools sanctioned under Dunlop's Act, in common with the certified industrial schools in England, will receive both grants and inspection through the Home Office alone.

There remains, however, a considerable number of uncertified institutions in the nature of refuges, homes, and asylums, which are still in receipt of aid from the grant for education. Under the amended Industrial Schools Act, now under discussion, great facilities will be given to the managers of these institutions to certify them for the reception of children attending them as day boarders, or wholly maintained in them, under the order of a magistrate; and we agree with the opinion expressed by our predecessors in office (report of the Committee on Education, 1858-9, p. xxxiv.), that institutions which admit of being certified ought not to continue to receive public aid unless they are certified. We do not consider that they can be safely aided upon any other conditions. Admission at the public expense into institutions where not only instruction, but food, clothing, or lodging—commonly all the three—are offered, requires to be guarded by some more responsible local authority than the discretion of the managers. Trusting that magistrates will avail themselves of the powers of the Industrial Schools Acts, and so make these schools at once effective for their purpose, and safe as regards the interests of the community at large, we have determined to admit no new schools of this class to aid from the grant for education, and we contemplate the withdrawal of such aid from those which now receive it after the end of the current financial year. It will then be left to the managers either to conduct them exclusively with private means, or to obtain public allowances for them as industrial schools certified or sanctioned by the Secretary of State, and subject to all the precautions against abuse which the Legislature has prescribed.

The report of the Royal Commissioners does not extend to Scotland. In that part of Great Britain, the instruction of girls, and, in connection with it, the large grants which for a period of twelve years have been made for training school-mistresses, continue to occupy our attention. Some progress has been made in adding sewing-mistresses to schools in which boys and girls are taught together by masters; but the number of mistresses who, after being trained at the public expense, can be ascertained to be serving in schools for the poor, is much smaller in Scotland than in England.

It is urged, by way of explanation, that the employment of female teachers in separate departments of schools for the poor is comparatively new in Scotland, and cannot be expected to make rapid way.

This argument concedes that the establishment of training schools for females in Scotland has been at least in some degree excessive or premature.

Others urge that the fault lies rather in the system of training, which is too little domestic or industrial.

We have corresponded upon the subject with the Education Committees of the General Assemblies of the Established and Free Churches respectively, by whom the training of female teachers in Scotland is superintended, and we have pointed out to them the complaints which are made.

We have to notice that in England all the young women who are in training to become schoolmistresses live together in colleges with the officers (almost exclusively females) who instruct them; whereas, at Edinburgh, a considerable part of the female students, and at Glasgow all

them, live in lodgings, according to the national custom for other students, and attend the college buildings for lessons only, which, except in the practising schools, they receive from the same teachers as the male students.

The report was signed by Earl Granville and Robert Lowe.

Expenditure from Education Grants for the year ended 31 December, 1860, classified according to object of grant, was as follows:—

In building, enlarging, repairing, and furnishing Elementary Schools	£117,103	6	8
In building, enlarging, repairing, and furnishing Normal or Training Colleges	1,025	0	0
In providing Books, Maps, and Diagrams	4,655	4	4
In providing Scientific Apparatus	177	14	10
In augmenting Salaries of Certificated Schoolmasters and Schoolmistresses	98,171	5	1
In paying Salaries of Assistant Teachers (<i>Minute, July 1852</i>)	7,181	11	8
In paying Salaries of Probationary Teachers (<i>Minute, July 1858</i>)	3,587	6	8
In paying Stipends of Pupil Teachers, and gratuities for their special instruction	257,557	11	0
In Capitation Grants	63,897	7	11
In Grants to Night Schools	1,635	15	3
In Grants for teaching Drawing	1,489	14	8
In Annual Grants to Training Colleges	92,328	19	0
In Grants to Reformatory and Industrial Schools	9,747	11	3
Pensions	639	0	0
Inspection	43,164	17	3
Administration (<i>Office in London</i>)	18,682	8	11
Poundage on Post-office Orders	2,394	18	9
Agency for Grants of Books, Maps, and Diagrams	963	12	1
Total	£724,403	5	4

Total expenditure from 1839 to 31 December, 1860, being £5,102,586 10 1½

Classified according to denomination of recipients, the expenditure for the year ended 31 December, 1860, was as follows:—

On Schools connected with—						
Church of England	£437,643	6	7½
British and Foreign School Society	65,361	2	6½
On Wesleyan Schools	37,677	16	7
On Roman Catholic Schools (England and Wales)	29,739	3	6½
On Parochial Union Schools	1,109	18	4
Scotland { On Schools connected with—						
Established Church	44,376	11	9
Free Church	36,650	8	0
Episcopal Church	4,436	7	5½
Roman Catholic Poor School Committee	2,202	13	6½
Inspection	43,164	17	3
Administration	18,682	8	11
Poundage	2,394	18	9
Agency	963	12	1
Total	£724,403	5	4

The number of school-houses built for the year was 229 institutions in which separate teachers are employed, and 203 residences, besides 187 enlarged or improved. The total amount awarded out of parliamentary grants was 117,103*l.* 6*s.* 8*d.*; the total amount expended by promoters,

406 C.—ECCLESIASTICAL AFFAIRS AND EDUCATION.

208,058*l.* 12*s.* 11*d.*: total amount expended, 325,161*l.* 19*s.* 7*d.* The number of children for whom new schools have been built was 47,421; the number of children for whom existing schools have been enlarged, 4,806: the total number of children for whom new schools have been built and existing schools enlarged, from 1839 to 1860 inclusive, was 694,069.

The number of certificated teachers actually employed in teaching was 7,711, viz., 4,520 males, and 3,191 females; number of assistant teachers, 295, viz., 212 males, 83 females; number of probationary teachers, 323, viz., 238 males, 85 females; and number of pupil teachers, 15,535, viz., 8,323 males, and 7,212 females.

The mean percentage of the children's ages in the schools registered was as follows:—4·99 per cent. were under 4 years; 7·52 per cent. were between 4 and 5 years; 10·31 per cent. were between 5 and 6 years; 11·88 per cent. were between 6 and 7 years; 12·31 per cent. were between 7 and 8 years; 12·22 per cent. were between 8 and 9 years; 11·98 per cent. were between 9 and 10 years; 9·72 per cent. were between 10 and 11 years; 7·96 per cent. were between 11 and 12 years; 5·59 per cent. were between 12 and 13 years; 3·19 per cent. were between 13 and 14 years; 2·33 per cent. were over 14 years: 32·41 per cent. had been in school less than one year; 21·34 per cent. had been in school one year; 18·43 per cent. had been in school two years; 12·69 per cent. had been in school three years; 7·78 per cent. had been in school four years; and 7·35 per cent. had been in school five years and over.

The average income per scholar from endowment, voluntary contribution, school pence, and other sources, was 16*s.* 7½*d.* The average salary of teachers was as follows:—certificated masters, 94*l.* 1*s.* 3*d.*; uncertificated masters, 60*l.* 7*s.* 9*d.*; certificated mistresses, 62*l.* 5*s.* 11*d.*; uncertificated mistresses, 35*l.* 10*s.* 11*d.*; certificated infant mistresses, 58*l.* 8*s.* 3*d.*; uncertificated infant mistresses, 34*l.* 0*s.* 4*d.*

In the schools visited on account of annual grants, 33·94 per cent. of the children paid 1*d.* and less than 2*d.*; 38·63 per cent. paid 2*d.* and less than 3*d.*; 16·41 per cent. paid 3*d.* and less than 4*d.*; 7·47 per cent. paid 4*d.*; and 3·55 per cent. paid over 5*d.*

EDUCATION.

Report to the Commissioners appointed to inquire into the State of Popular Education by the Committee appointed by them for the purpose of obtaining an Enumeration of Dissenters' Schools.

DAY SCHOOLS.—*Accommodation.*—The returns from day schools include 363 from British, 146 from Baptist, 388 from Congregational, and 14 from undenominational schools; * of these, 734 furnished reports regarding the accommodation for scholars. Out of this number 55 British, 46 Baptist, and 102 Congregational,—in all, 203 schools, report that the school-room has been either erected or enlarged since 1851. The rate of increase in

* Such as Town and City Mission schools.

the accommodation afforded for scholars, as indicated by these returns, is as follows:—British schools, 21·34 per cent.; Baptist, 72·84 per cent.; Congregational, 36·39 per cent. With regard to the last two the committee remark, that the increase, in some instances, appears to consist in the adaptation of previously existing Sunday school-rooms to day-school purposes. New day-schools are thus created, but new buildings are not always or at first erected.

Scholars belonging to the Schools.—These are returned as follows:—British schools, 38,546; Baptist, 9,469; Congregational, 32,982; unsectarian, 1,021: total, 82,018.

Accommodation and Number of Scholars compared.—The average accommodation is found to be, in British schools, 148; in Baptist, 135; in Congregational, 162; and in unsectarian, 94. The average number of scholars on the books is, in British schools, 106; in Baptist, 75; in Congregational, 85; and in unsectarian, 73. The percentage of accommodation to the number of scholars belonging to the schools is, therefore, in British schools, 139; in Baptist, 180; in Congregational, 189; and in unsectarian, 128. There is thus in all descriptions of schools, of which the committee have received information, a large excess of accommodation over the present attendance.

Paid Teachers.—The total number of paid teachers in 911 schools is reported at 1,911. The numbers for each description of school are given in the table.

Proportion of Teachers to Scholars.—This is greatest in the unsectarian schools, nearly identical in British and Baptist, and least in Congregational schools, the proportions being in British schools, one teacher to every 36 scholars; in Baptist, one to 38; in Congregational, one to 64; and in unsectarian, one to 31.

Proportion of Masters to Mistresses.—The table is given as a probably correct indication of the rank of each description of school, the class of scholars in attendance, and the range of the instruction afforded. Its results show that in the British schools the numbers of masters and mistresses are nearly equal; that in Baptist, the number of mistresses exceeds the number of masters by more than 50 per cent.; that in Congregational, the number of mistresses exceeds the number of masters by nearly 70 per cent.; and that in the few unsectarian schools, the mistresses are to the masters as three to one.

Income and Expenditure.—Returns of income and expenditure have been received:—311 British schools, 95 Baptist, 281 Congregational, 8 unsectarian: in all, 695.

Average Annual Income per Scholar from various Sources.—The details and the summary for each description of school exhibit a remarkable, and, with regard to school fees, a suggestive variation. The average annual income, per scholar, from endowments, is in British schools, 3½d.; Baptist, 6½d.; Congregational, 7d.; unsectarian, 6½d. The average annual income from school pence is, in British schools, 6s. 6½d.; Baptist, 4s. 11½d.; Congregational, 8s. 2d.; unsectarian, 4s. 2½d. The general average of this table gives about three halfpence per week per scholar, for which sum, in many instances, instruction appears to be given in every branch of an ordinary English education, and in many of the arts, sciences, and accomplishments. The average annual income per scholar from subscriptions and donations is in British schools, 5s. 5d.; Baptist,

3s. 3½d.; Congregational, 4s. 8½d.; unsectarian, 9s. 5d. The average income per scholar is as follows:—British schools, 12s. 3d.; Baptist, 9s. 1d.; Congregational, 13s. 5½d.; unsectarian, 14s. 1½d. The British schools containing on an average a considerably larger number of scholars than either of the other classes, their income, per school, from all sources, is proportionately larger.

Results of raising the School Fees.—Of the whole number of 911 schools, only 63 report that the school fee has been raised. In 24 of these the attendance has increased; in 4 it has decreased. The remainder report that no alteration has taken place. The committee have remarked that the managers of the only Nonconformal school, who from want of sufficient funds announced their intention of applying for aid to the Privy Council committee, have not tried the experiment of raising the school fee.

Increase and Decrease of Scholars of the Poorer Class.—Reports from 75 schools have been received on this subject: 54 report an increase of attendance, and 21 a decrease.

Ages of Scholars.—The committee have received replies from 641 schools, giving information concerning the ages of 50,110 children stated to be in actual attendance at school. It is not considered, however, that these figures afford any correct indication of the attendance of scholars, as compared with the number belonging to the schools. In very many of the returns the actual attendance and the numbers belonging to the school are given as identical. The question, therefore, has evidently been misunderstood, and the replies, though trustworthy as to the ages of the children, are scarcely to be relied upon for a comparison of attendance with the whole number of scholars.

Relative Proportions of Ages.—These have been calculated for both male and female scholars; the result is in harmony with all previously-collected information. Only 12 per cent. of the children remain at school after attaining 12 years of age, and only 4 per cent. after attaining the age of 13. The committee direct attention to the difference between the attendances of male and female scholars, the result being considerably in favour of the male scholars.

Ages in Two Selected Counties.—A similar table is given of the ages of scholars in the two counties of Dorset and Lancaster; these two having been selected as offering, perhaps, the greatest contrasts, on account of their difference in race, habits, occupations, and mental characteristics. The result indicates the earlier attendance of children at school in the agricultural county, and the later attendance in the manufacturing. The proportions for Lancaster and the whole of England and Wales are almost identical.

The Average Age on Admission to School is given for the four descriptions of British, Baptist, Congregational, and unsectarian schools, in all 509. This average is based upon the totals of both infant and other schools. It indicates the earlier attendance of children in the unsectarian and denominational schools.

Average Age on Leaving School.—It has been found to be necessary to take this for England and for Wales separately, the average in Wales being much higher than any attained in England. In England, reports have been received from 379 boys' and 349 girls' schools. The general average gives 11 years and 3½ months, as the age at which children are found to leave school. The average is highest in the Baptist and unsectarian, and

lowest in Congregational schools. In Wales, in 113 schools, the average age on leaving school is 1 year and $7\frac{1}{2}$ months higher than in England, the age being 12 years and 11 months. The comparative averages indicate that the same rule obtains with respect to the several descriptions of school as in England, the highest average being attained by the Baptists, and the lowest by the Congregationalists. Striking the difference between the age on admission to and the age on leaving school, the following result is arrived at:—Length of period under instruction. 1. England.—British schools, 5 years $3\frac{1}{2}$ months; Congregational, 5 years 7 months; Baptists, 6 years 5 months; unsectarian, 7 years 1 month. 2. Wales.—British schools, 6 years 11 months; Congregational, 7 years 5 months; Baptist, 8 years.

The Average Age on Leaving School has also been calculated for the three counties of Essex, Lancaster, and Middlesex, from each of which the number of returns is nearly equal. The lowest average is obtained in Lancashire, and the highest in Middlesex.

Increasing and Decreasing Age on Leaving School.—Reports concerning 105 schools have been received: 40 state that the age is increasing; 65 that it is decreasing; the remainder either report no alteration or do not answer the question.

The Average Attendance of Children throughout the year is given for 301 schools. The highest is attained in the unsectarian and the lowest in the British schools, the averages being—British, 170 days; Congregational, 206 days; Baptist, 208 days; unsectarian, 225 days.

No columns for the tabulation of the wants experienced by managers of schools is given in the schedule for tabulation. The whole of the answers have, however, been classified. In all, 404 replies have been received. The following is the summary table:—1. Money, 148; 2. Books and maps, &c., 56; 3. Sympathy and co-operation of parents, 51; 4. More regular attendance of children, 38; 5. Larger, 21; 6. Nothing, 20; 7. More room, 14; 8. Public sympathy, 14; 9. More scholars, 7; 10. Better teachers, 7; 11. More, 6; 12. Efficient monitors, 6; 13. Fair plays from other schools, 5; 14. Parents' refusal to purchase books, 3; 15. Pupil teachers, 2; 16. Difficulty of competing with schools aided by Government, 2; 17. Government inspection, 1; 18. Poverty of parents, 1; 19. Regular payment of fees, 1; 20. Playground, 1: Total, 404. The Committee have not thought it desirable to tabulate the answers relating to the number of scholars who have attended school for 176 days in the year, and the number given being in very many instances identical with those belonging to the above, and therefore not reliable, and comparatively few replies having been received from the Baptist and Congregational schools where a register for such information has not hitherto usually been kept. Nor have the replies relating to the course of instruction pursued been arranged: such answers as have been received are registered in the schedules for tabulation; but in consideration of the question in the schedule of inquiry having been put in only a general form, the information given is neither full nor accurate. As an instance of its defectiveness, the committee remark that scarcely any schools state that religious instruction is given, while it is known that the giving of religious instruction is an indispensable condition in all British and denominational schools without exception. The only general conclusion which the committee have been able to draw upon this branch of the inquiry is, that the range of

instruction appears to be more limited in the denominational than in the British schools.

EVENING SCHOOLS.—Number of Scholars.—The evening schools reported to the committee are as follows :—British, 33, containing 1,088 scholars; Baptist, 74, containing 2,952 scholars; Congregational, 152, containing 6,344 scholars; unsectarian, 9, containing 978 scholars: total, 268, containing 11,362 scholars.

Scholars who have never attended a Day School.—Of the 268 schools, 108 give information as to day school attendance. In these schools there were 3,844 scholars, of whom 792 had never attended a day school. The proportion to the whole number is 26·68 per cent.

The Number of Evening Scholars who have attended a Day School for Five Years in the same number of schools is 1,799, or 46·80 per cent. It is evident, therefore, that the majority of evening scholars, averaging 79·32 per cent. in 108 schools, have previously received some degree of instruction in a day school.

Paid Teachers.—Nearly the whole of the teachers in the 268 evening schools, concerning which the committee have received information, are unpaid and voluntary. Out of the whole number, only 20, viz., 16 males and 4 females, are reported to be paid.

Age of Scholars.—This information is given for 128 schools, containing 5,304 scholars, and exhibits the following proportions :—Nine years and under, 6·62 per cent.; above 9 and under 15, 47·15 per cent.; above 15 and under 20, 35·79 per cent.; above 20 and under 25, 10·44 per cent. The large majority, therefore, of attendants at evening schools have ceased to attend day schools, nearly one-half of them being adults.

SUNDAY SCHOOLS.—Numbers of Scholars and Teachers.—The number for each description of school of which information has been communicated is as follows :—Baptist, 1,430 schools, 159,503 scholars, 23,635 teachers; Congregational, 1,935 schools, 262,226 scholars, 33,329 teachers; British and unsectarian, 26 schools, 2,760 scholars, 380 teachers: totals, 3,391 schools, 424,489 scholars, 67,344 teachers. These numbers give an average of 125 scholars to each school, and of one teacher to every 6·30 children. It will be observed that the larger proportion of scholars is of the female sex, while the larger proportion of the teachers is of the male sex. All the teachers in these schools, without exception, are unpaid.

Sunday Scholars who have never attended a Day School.—In 1854, schools giving replies to this question, the number of scholars who have never attended a day school, is stated to be 17·047. On an average of 125 scholars to each school, this would give a proportion of 8·64 per cent. in both the Baptist and Congregational schools, and of five per cent. in the Baptist and unsectarian. The ages of these are not given, so that it is impossible to tell how many are comparative infants. It is, however, suggested to notice that the proportion of children under six years of age in 2,249 Sunday schools is 17·50 per cent. of the whole number.

The Number of Sunday Scholars who have attended a Day School for Five Years, in the same number of schools (1,584), is 55·805. On the same average attendance, this would give the following result :—In Baptist schools 24 per cent.; Congregational, 31·68; unsectarian, 14·66.

The Increase or Decrease of Voluntary Teachers is reported for 1,253 schools; of these 1,013, or about 80 per cent. of the number, report an increase, and 240, or about 20 per cent., a decrease. In the remaining

schools, the numbers appear to have been stationary. The relative increase is greatest in the Congregational and least in the Baptist schools, and the decrease least in the Congregational and greatest in the Baptist schools.

The Annual Income and Expenditure is given by counties for each class of school. It varies from upwards of 100*l.* to a few shillings per school. In all 2,484 reports have been received on this head, exhibiting the following average for each school:—Baptist schools, 7*l.* 19*s.* 3*d.*; Congregational, 10*l.* 12*s.* 10*d.*; British and unsectarian, 4*l.* 14*s.* 7*d.* The expenditure is about the same as the income in all cases.

The Age of Scholars has been returned for 2,249 schools, containing 244,276, or nearly a quarter of a million scholars. For the same reason as that given in connexion with day schools, this number, as exhibiting the attendance in proportion to the total number of scholars, is not to be relied upon. The following is the principal result of the table:—Six years of age and under, 17·50 per cent.; between 6 and 12 years, 45·63 per cent.; above 12, and under 15, 23·14 per cent.; above 15, and under 20, 13·73 per cent. It would appear from the table, that a very large proportion of day scholars must continue their education in the Sunday schools, after leaving the day schools.

Ages in Three Selected Counties.—This table tends to support the supposition that in districts where opportunities for day school education are most deficient, Sunday schools are most extensively conducted. The proportions of scholars in Sunday schools above 12 years of age have been compared for the counties of Lancaster, Middlesex and Wilts, as the best specimens of a manufacturing, a metropolitan and an agricultural district. The proportion of adults or persons above 15 years of age, is as follows:—Lancaster, 21·54 per cent.; Middlesex, 10·53; Wilts, 14·68. Above 12 years of age, the proportions are, for Lancaster, 45·59 per cent.; Middlesex, 31·25; Wilts, 39·10. The proportion for the whole of England is 36·87 per cent. Lancaster, therefore, is much above the average in this respect, and Middlesex almost as much below.

The above appear to the committee to be the principal results of the information which has been furnished to them. They do not consider it to be within their province to give expression to any opinions, favourable or otherwise, upon the facts communicated, but simply to lay them before her Majesty's commission, with the hope that they may be of service in the important inquiry of which your Grace has charge.

(Signed) S. MORLEY, *chairman*, J. H. HINTON, M.A., HENRY RICHARD,
WILLIAM J. UNWIN, M.A., GEORGE SMITH.

TITHE COMMISSION.

Copy of the Report of the Tithe Commissioners to her Majesty's Secretary of State for the Home Department, for the Year 1861.

THE Tithe Commissioners received 7,070 agreements and confirmed 6,778. They received 5,647 drafts of compulsory awards, of which one was received during the year 1861. They confirmed 5,449 of such awards, of which 4 were confirmed during the year 1861. In 12,227 districts, as will be seen from the above statement, the tithes have been commuted by confirmed

412 C.—ECCLESIASTICAL AFFAIRS AND EDUCATION.

agreements or confirmed awards. In 412 of these districts the rentcharges have been disposed of by redemption or merger. The commissioners received 11,786 apportionments, and confirmed 11,778; and of these one has been received and one confirmed during the year 1861. They made 2,610 altered apportionments, and confirmed 2,273; of these 217 have been received and 185 confirmed during the year 1861. They received 870 applications for the exchange of glebe lands, and confirmed 791 of such exchanges; and of these 43 applications were received and 36 exchanges confirmed during the year 1861. They received 353 applications for the redemption of rentcharge, and have completed 282 of such redemptions; and of these 92 were received, and 33 completed during the year 1861. At the close of 1861 the commissioners had confirmed 14,550 distinct mergers of tithes or rentcharges.

QUEEN'S COLLEGE, GALWAY.

Report of the President of Queen's College, Galway, for the Year 1860-61.

In the session 1860-61, there was an increase of 26 in the number of students attending lectures on the number attending in the preceding session 1859-60. In the session 1861-62 there has been a still further increase of 9, making an increase on the two sessions of 35 in the number availing themselves of the college instruction. The total number of students who have entered the Queen's College were, of matriculated students in 1860-61, 59; and in 1861-62, 59; of non-matriculated students, 1 in 1860-61, and 3 in 1861-62, making in all 60 in 1860-61 and 62 in 1861-62. Of those who entered, 13 in 1860-61 and 21 in 1861-62 were members of the Established Church; 33 in 1860-61, and 35 in 1861-62 were Roman Catholics; 12 in 1860-61 and 6 in 1861-62 were Presbyterian; and 2 in 1860-61 were Wesleyan Methodists. In 1861-62 there were attending lectures 148 matriculated students, and 5 non-matriculated; total 153. Of these 39 were members of the Established Church, 91 Roman Catholics, 19 Presbyterians, 3 Wesleyan Methodists, 1 Independent: total 153. In 1860-61 the following number of students attended lectures:—24 Greek, 24 Latin, 42 mathematics, 29 English, 70 modern languages, 6 Celtic languages, 70 natural philosophy, 39 natural history, 19 logic and metaphysics, 60 chemistry, 21 engineering, 5 agriculture, 71 anatomy and physiology, 26 materia medica and medical jurisprudence, 19 surgery, 12 midwifery, 4 English law, 10 jurisprudence and political economy, and 8 medicine.

Taking the entrances, as well as the attendance on lectures, in 1850-51, and comparing them with those of the last three sessions, the entrances have increased from 26 to 40 in the session 1859-60, to 60 in the session 1860-61, and to 62 in the session 1861-62: and the number of students attending lectures has increased from 63 in session 1850-51, to 118 in session 1859-60, to 144 in session 1860-61, and to 153 in the present session 1861-62.

Looking to the religious persuasions of those entering and attending lectures, the entrances of Roman Catholics have increased from 9 in session 1850-51 to 25 in session 1859-60, to 33 in session 1860-61, and to 35 in the present session 1861-62; the entrances of the members of the Church

of England have increased from 10 in session 1850-51 to 12 in session 1859-60, to 13 in session 1860-61, and to 21 in the present session 1861-62.

As regards attendance on lectures the number of Roman Catholics attending has increased from 28 in session 1850-51 to 69 in session 1859-60, to 85 in session 1860-61, and to 91 in the present session. The number of members of the Church of England has increased from 22 in 1850-51, to 31 in 1859-60, to 33 in 1860-61, and 39 in the present session.

With respect to the number of Roman Catholics resorting to the colleges, a fact, to which reference has been made in a former report, will enable some judgment to be formed how far it is satisfactory or otherwise. In the year 1845, that in which the colleges were founded, there existed but one university in Ireland. At that time the number of Roman Catholics was six millions and a half; nor did the men who then presided over the councils of the Catholic Church consider it essential to the maintenance of the faith of the Catholic youth that they should be separated from all intercourse with their Protestant countrymen at that period of life when alone enduring friendships can be formed. In that year from 100 to 120 Roman Catholics were entered on the rolls of the Dublin University, of whom but a small portion were in attendance on its lectures. The recent census shows that the number of Roman Catholics has since that period diminished to four millions and a half, and in the present session 91 students of that persuasion are attending the lectures in the Galway college. With respect to the progress of the colleges in general, it was said that, severe as was the ordeal to which they were submitted, ample testimony was afforded of the progress they had made, and of the wisdom of those to whom they owe their foundation. In the short space of time which has elapsed since the holding of the commission the entrances into the colleges have increased from 168 to 309; the numbers attending lectures from 454 to 752.

With those who decry as failures, colleges, the aggregate of whose students amounts in the thirteenth year of their existence to such a number, it is useless to contend. The candid man will see in it, if not complete success, at least the assured hope and cheering earnest of such success.

How far the colleges have succeeded as seminaries of united education may be judged of by the following enumeration of the different persuasions now united in their class-rooms; while the fact that in no one of the colleges has a single dissension on the score of religion ever marred the harmony that exists among the students, sufficiently attests the possibility of uniting in the bonds of mutual affection the youth of our people, and of thus laying the groundwork of the future prosperity of our country. Of the 752 students attending the colleges, 207 were of the Established Church, 204 were Roman Catholics, 247 were Presbyterians, 94 were of other persuasions.

The following fact, which gives the numbers of the principal religious persuasions in each of the provinces in which the colleges are situated, and the number of those persuasions attending the provincial college, will determine how far each of the colleges has obtained that success which I conceive cannot be denied to them in the aggregate.

The province of Ulster had 963,687 Roman Catholics, who gave 17 students attending college; 390,130 of the Established Church, who gave

414 C.—ECCLESIASTICAL AFFAIRS AND EDUCATION.

56 students; and 551,375 Presbyterians, who gave 220 students attending college. The province of Connaught had 864,472 Roman Catholics, who gave 91 students; 40,000 of the Established Church, who gave 39 students; and 3,025 Presbyterians, who gave 19 students. The province of Munster had 1,416,171 Roman Catholics, who gave 96 students; 76,692 of the Established Church, who gave 109 students; and 3,685 Presbyterians, who gave 7 students.

The opponents of the colleges have attributed the number of their students to the "rich rewards" in the shape of scholarships, &c., which, as they say, allure or bribe them to the colleges; but a statement of the sum annually distributed in these rewards will enable the public to judge of the value of these inducements. The entire sum allocated by the Legislature to the payment of scholarships, exhibitions, and all other aids of learning in the colleges, amounts to 1,500*l.* a year in each, or to 4,500*l.* in the three colleges. Those acquainted with the splendid endowments which give to the ancient universities so much strength and lustre, will smile when they hear the small prizes into which this moderate endowment of the Queen's Colleges has been divided, designated as the "rich lures" which attract students to their class-rooms.

Again, the opponents of the colleges, finding that in certain departments, from circumstances quite explicable but too tedious to enumerate, some scholarships remain unfilled, have eagerly embraced the conclusion that the number of scholarships exceed the number of students. A simple statement will dispose of this objection. There are 48 scholarships open to the students of the first year. These scholarships are tenable for one year only, and on an average are worth about 22*l.* In the present session the new entrances of first year's students amount to 309. Besides these, there are for students of the second and third years 87 scholarships of the same average value, and tenable for the same period: making in all 135 scholarships, open to the undergraduates of the three colleges; and in the present session there are more than 700 undergraduates attending the college lectures.

From the statistics of the Dublin University it appears that in the five years from 1855 to 1859, inclusive, 80 Roman Catholics and 61 Protestant Dissenters entered Trinity College.

The students of these persuasions who have entered for the last two years were not given; but as the number of the annual entrances appears to be pretty constant, we may by adding the mean entrances of Roman Catholics (16), and of Dissenters (12), for the last two years, obtain the entrances of these persuasions for the last seven years into the Dublin University. They will then amount to 112 Roman Catholics and 85 Protestant Dissenters. In the last seven years 430 Roman Catholics and 598 Dissenters have entered the Queen's Colleges. No higher panegyric on the wisdom of those who founded the Queen's Colleges can be required than that which these last statistics afford.

QUEEN'S COLLEGE, BELFAST.

Report of the President of Queen's College, Belfast, for the Year ending March 1, 1861.

THE whole number present, prosecuting their various courses of study, in 1860-61, was 312. A comparison of this attendance with that of 1852-53 shows that from that time to the present, the numbers upon the attendance rolls are more than doubled, especially among the matriculated students. In the session 1852-53 there were present 101 matriculated, and 53 non-matriculated young men. In 1859-60 the matriculated had risen to 199, and the non-matriculated only to 58. At present the increase on the former side is still more remarkable, there being present 239 matriculated and 73 non-matriculated.

The matriculated students, amongst those who entered for the first time this winter, have risen rapidly, as compared with the others. Of medical men in attendance in the session in which the college opened, there were in attendance 28 matriculated and 27 non-matriculated medical students: total 55. In the session 1859-60 they had risen respectively to 56 and 39: total, 95; and in the present to 70 and 46: total, 116.

The relative proportions of the different denominations remain nearly the same as in former years, and it is a matter of congratulation that the spirit of good will, of harmonious action, and generous rivalry, amongst the students of the different churches, not only remains undiminished, but affords another proof of the advantage and practicability of united education. The numbers were as follows:—Established Church, 57; General Assembly, 189; non-subscribing Presbyterians, 14; Roman Catholics, 22; Wesleyan Methodists, 7; Covenanters, 9; Seceders, 4; various, 9; religious denomination withheld, 1: total, 312.

The competition for scholarships, both junior and senior, are always of a very testing character, regarding the positive and comparative merits of the aspirants to these collegiate honours. Nothing has tended so materially to raise the standard of education in the province as the annual contests for these exhibitions, according to the courses for the different departments, as laid down by the council. To carry success, every student, from the breaking up of the college in the middle of June until its reopening in October, must, with untiring zeal and energy, devote himself closely to acquire the necessary knowledge. The struggle to secure or to retain collegiate rank is often so close as to place the examiners and council in great difficulty, when deciding on the comparative merits of those who compete. On a former occasion the peculiar organization was described that has hitherto existed in the Queen's colleges regarding this class of exhibitions. Whereas in other universities a scholarship is held for three, four, or five years, in the Queen's colleges it has hitherto been tenable only for one year, and must be contended for anew by those who enter the lists at the end of that period. By an oversight of this, it might be made to appear that the scholarships are nearly treble what they really are, and thus be made by so much to exaggerate the real number of those placed at the disposal of the college. Merit alone is the test for these scholarships.

The scholarships awarded in the several faculties in 1860-61 were as follows:—7 senior scholarships in arts, 1 senior scholarship in medicine,

28 junior scholarships in arts, 2 engineering scholarships, 2 agricultural scholarships, 5 medical scholarships, 3 law scholarships.

The scholarships lapsed were—1 senior scholarship in medicine, 1 senior scholarship in law; 1 literary scholarship, third year, arts; 1 literary scholarship, second year, arts; 2 scholarships, second year, agriculture; 1 medical scholarship, second year.

This college, viewed as a member of the Queen's University in Ireland, continues to hold its distinguished place, whether in regard to the number of students it sends forward to graduate in the Queen's University, or in reference to the position they yearly attain in the intellectual struggles for honours and exhibitions with the co-ordinate students of Cork and Galway.

The students also of this college continue yearly to gain, in the competitive examinations of the Civil Service, high distinctions and numerous most valuable places, thus establishing the excellence and soundness of the courses of education afforded within these walls, and their adaptation to the circumstances of the age and of the country.

Our records show a first place at the Woolwich examination, and also a first place, on two occasions, at the difficult examination for the Three Years' Scholarship in the Inns of Court, London; one of them being in a former year, and the other during last summer. At the East India examination, also, the success of the Belfast students has been very remarkable; in this last service, adding the five places given in last July, students of this college have already carried the first and second places, two fourth places, a tenth, a fifteenth, a seventeenth, a thirty-fifth, a fortieth, and a seventy-second place.

At the last examination, a student of this college headed the list of all Irish competitors, whilst another stood first in mathematics of the whole of the candidates, and another also first of them all in the natural sciences.

In the army and navy medical services, many of the students who have issued from these walls have obtained the highest places, some being marked by the examiners as pre-eminently distinguished, whilst a number in the various faculties are continuing to distinguish themselves highly in the professions which they have selected. I think it right to state that, notwithstanding the success thus indicated, few of the students of Belfast College appear to be preparing for the next East India examination, owing, no doubt, to the increasing demand for well-educated young men in various departments and professions.

QUEEN'S COLLEGE, CORK.

Report of the President of the Queen's College, Cork, for the Academic Year 1859-60.

THE examinations for entrance were held in the usual manner at the opening of the session, and on subsequent days, as fixed by the college council. After these examinations, 60 new students were entered as matriculated students to the first year's class, as were also 10 students who had previously matriculated, but who, from not having been promoted, or from other causes, were disqualified from proceeding with the higher studies of a senior class, and were, therefore, necessitated to re-enter the class of the

first year, and resume the more elementary course. The total number of matriculated students in the first year's class, for the session 1859-60, was, therefore, 70. In addition to the above, there presented themselves to proceed with the studies of the senior years, 74 students, who had passed the sessional examinations at the close of the present academic year. The total number of matriculated students in Queen's College, Cork, for the year 1859-60 was, therefore, 144. In addition to the above 144 matriculated students, there entered, to attend the lectures of particular professors, 27 non-matriculated students. The total number of students attending the college during the session 1859-60 was, therefore, 171.

The classification of those students by their collegiate standing was as follows:—Matriculated students, courses of first year, 70; matriculated students, courses of second year, 40; matriculated students, courses of third year, 17; matriculated students, courses of fourth year, 9; special courses not for university degrees, 8: total number of matriculated students, 144; non-matriculated students, 27: total number of students, 171. In regard to faculties and courses of study for degrees and diplomas, the classification of the students who attend the college during the session 1859-60 was as follows:—In the faculty of arts, 51 matriculated, 7 non-matriculated, total 58; in the faculty of medicine, 65 matriculated; 20 non-matriculated, total, 85; in the faculty of law, 4 matriculated; in the course of engineering, 26 matriculated; in the course of agriculture, 5 matriculated: total, 151 matriculated, 27 non-matriculated, total, 178. The number, 151, exceeds that given previously, as the total number of matriculated students (144) by 7, the which excess is caused by the circumstance that so many students were entered to follow at the same time more than one course of study for degrees. Under this head there were—Attending arts and medicine, 4; attending arts and law, 1; attending arts and engineering, 1; attending medicine and engineering, 1: total, 7. The respective ages of matriculated students are given in the following table:—Under 16 years of age, 12; from 16 to 17 years of age, 14; from 17 to 18 years of age, 18; from 18 to 19 years of age, 25; from 19 to 20 years of age, 16; from 20 to 21 years of age, 19; over 21 years of age, 40: total, 144. The average ages of students attending the several branches of study were—In the faculty of arts, 17·7 years; in the faculty of medicine, 19·5 years; in the faculty of law, 20·0 years; in the course of engineering, 18·4 years; in the course of agriculture, 18·0 years. The average ages of all matriculated students at entrance was found to be 17·9. The ages of non-matriculated students are not recorded. Of the 144 matriculated students 4 interrupted their studies before the termination of the session.

The particulars of classes, the numbers of lectures delivered by each professor weekly, and the number of students attending each class, is given in the following table:—Greek language, 9 lectures, 32 students; Latin language, 9 lectures, 38 students; English language, 3 lectures, 27 students; history and English literature, 3 lectures, 9 students; French language, 6 lectures, 56 students; Celtic language, 6 lectures, 8 students; mathematics, 9 lectures, 67 students; natural philosophy, 11 lectures, 50 students; chemistry, 3 lectures, 62 students; practical chemistry, 3 lectures, 22 students; natural history, 3 lectures, 44 students; physical geography, 3 lectures, 9 students; geology and mineralogy, 3 lectures, 18 students; logic, 3 lectures, 10 students; metaphysics, 3 lectures, 6 students; civil engineering, 9 lectures, 28 students; agriculture, 9 lectures, 4 students;

[49]

anatomy and physiology, 5 lectures, 59 students; practical anatomy, 5 lectures, 44 students; practice of surgery, 3 lectures, 23 students; practice of medicine, 3 lectures, 16 students; materia medica, 3 lectures, 24 students; medical jurisprudence, 3 lectures, 12 students; midwifery, 3 lectures, 12 students; English law, 12 lectures, 4 students; civil law, 8 lectures, 3 students; political economy, 4 lectures, 4 students; ophthalmic surgery, 10 students. The several courses of instruction were delivered by the professors in a highly satisfactory manner. All the arrangements necessary for efficiency of teaching have been fully carried out.

With regard to the numerical proportions of the several religious denominations among the students, of the 144 matriculated and the 27 non-matriculated students, who were on the college books in the session 1859-60, there were—Roman Catholics, 75 matriculated, 10 non-matriculated, total 85, or 49·7 per cent.; Established Church, 52 matriculated, 16 non-matriculated, total 68, or 39·8 per cent.; Presbyterians, 4 matriculated, or 2·3 per cent.; Wesleyans, 8 matriculated, or 4·7 per cent.; Independents, 2 matriculated, or 1·2 per cent.; Society of Friends, 2 matriculated, 1 non-matriculated, total 3, or 1·7 per cent.; Unitarian, 1 matriculated, or 0·6 per cent.: total matriculated, 144; total non-matriculated, 27; grand total, 171.

In these tables the gradual and steady increase in the number of the Roman Catholic students is remarkably shown, both in the absolute numbers, which progress as the total number of students increases from year to year, and also in the relative numbers of the Roman Catholics as compared with the other denominations. We thus see unequivocally proved the healthy growth of well-founded confidence in the educational arrangements of this college, which is taking place on the part of the public at large, but especially on the part of the Roman Catholic laity of the South of Ireland. This result is also manifested by the returns of the session now current, 1860-61, the total number of students having increased this session to 201, and the number of Roman Catholics to 95—the number of new matriculated students entered in this year being 72, which is more than had ever been entered in one session.

NATIONAL EDUCATION, IRELAND.

Twenty-seventh Report of the Commissioners of National Education in Ireland, for the Year 1860.

On the 31st of December, 1859, we had 5,496 schools in operation, which had on their rolls, for the year then ended, 806,510 children; with an average daily attendance, for the same period, of 269,203 children; and an average number of children on the rolls of the year of 519,175. At the close of the year 1860, the number of schools in operation was 5,632, being an increase in the schools in operation of 136, for the year 1860, as compared with the year 1859. The average daily attendance of children for the same period was 262,823, and the average number of children on the rolls, for the year, was 510,638; while the total number of distinct children at any time on the rolls for the year was 804,000.

There appears to be a decrease in the daily average attendance for the year 1860, as compared with the year 1859, of 6,380, being about 1·1 for

each school. As there does not appear to be a proportionate decrease in the number of children on the rolls, this trifling decrease in the average must be attributed to the severity of the weather during the greater portion of the past year, and the consequent interruption to the regularity of the children's attendance.

We have made grants, at various times, amounting to 8,299*l.* 3*s.* 3*d.*, towards the erection of 47 ordinary national school-houses, not yet opened, which will contain in the whole 62 separate school-rooms. In addition to the ordinary national schools not yet built, there are also in course of erection 7 model school-houses of various kinds, containing in the whole 20 school-rooms. When these 54 buildings shall have been completed, they will afford accommodation to 7,655 additional children. Of the above 47 grants, for the erection of ordinary school-houses, 12 were awarded during the year 1860, involving liabilities to the amount of 2,282*l.* 15*s.* 7*d.*

The number of schools struck off, during the year 1860, was 98, of which 82 had been previously in operation, and 9 had been suspended; the remaining 7 were simply cases in which grants for building had, from time to time, been awarded, but for various reasons have now been cancelled. The number of schools in the "suspended list," at the close of the year, was 62, of which number 7 were suspended during the year 1860. It is to be borne in mind that many of these suspended schools may hereafter be reopened. During the year, 230 schools were added to our roll, and the entire number of schools we had in connection on the 31st of December, 1860, was 5,776, including those in operation, those suspended, and those towards the building of which we have promised aid.

Taking the total number of distinct children appearing at any time on the rolls, for the year 1860, as 804,000, we have for the 5,632 schools in operation an average for each school of 142·7; while, if we take the average number only appearing on the rolls of the same 5,632 schools as 510,638, we get an average for each school of 90·6 children; and, taking the total daily average attendance at the 5,632 schools as 262,823, the average number of children in daily attendance at each school appears to be 46·6.

The centesimal proportion of the children of the various religious denominations was as follows:—In Ulster, 12·64 per cent. were Established Church, 54·20 Roman Catholic, 31·83 Presbyterian, 1·33 others; in Munster, 1·45 per cent. were Established Church, 98·30 Roman Catholic, 0·21 Presbyterian, 0·04 others; in Leinster, 2·40 per cent. were Established Church, 97·32 Roman Catholic, 0·23 Presbyterian, 0·05 others; in Connaught, 2·91 per cent. were Established Church, 96·88 Roman Catholic, 0·18 Presbyterian, 0·03 others: giving a percentage on the total of 5·63 Established Church, 83·11 Roman Catholic, 10·78 Presbyterian, 0·48 others. The present total number may be as follows:—45,269 Established Church, 668,243 Roman Catholics, 86,666 Presbyterians, 3,822 others; total on rolls, 804,000. That is—Protestants of all denominations, 135,757; Roman Catholics, 668,243.

The distribution of the schools and pupils, according to the several provinces, was as follows:—Ulster, 2,064 schools, 276,437 pupils; Munster, 1,405 schools, 211,814 pupils; Leinster, 1,325 schools, 196,814 pupils; Connaught, 838 schools, 118,935 pupils.

The total amount of salaries, premiums, gratuities, and allowances paid, in 1860, to the principal literary teachers of national schools, assistants, paid monitors, work-mistresses, teachers of central and other model schools,

420 C.—ECCLESIASTICAL AFFAIRS AND EDUCATION.

agricultural schools, evening schools, workhouse schools, and organizing teachers, was 182,265*l.* 19*s.* 4*d.*

We also paid to 161 monitors in our district and minor model schools the sum of 1,141*l.* 18*s.* Monitors in these schools are paid at the following rates:—First year, 6*l.*; second year, 8*l.*; third year, 10*l.*; fourth year, 12*l.*

The amount received for books and school requisites sold at reduced prices to national schools, in the year 1859, was 9,293*l.* 2*s.* 11*d.*; in 1860 the amount received was 8,906*l.* 1*s.* 1*d.*, being a decrease, as compared with the previous year, of 387*l.* 1*s.* 10*d.* The number of orders for books for national schools received in 1860 was 9,208. The estimated value of the grants of books and school requisites given as free stock, in 1860, was 4,873*l.* 8*s.* 11*d.* The number of grants was 1,943.

The sum expended in the year 1860, in premiums for the encouragement of cleanliness and good order, amounted to 1,089*l.* 10*s.*, which was distributed according to the following scale, viz., in each district:—1 premium of 4*l.*; 2 premiums of 3*l.*, 6*l.*; 5 premiums of 1*l.* 10*s.*, 7*l.* 10*s.*; 5 premiums of 1*l.*, 5*l.*: total in each district, 13 premiums, amounting to 22*l.* 10*s.*

The amount paid as gratuities to the literary teachers of workhouse national schools during the year 1860 was 308*l.*, in accordance with the following scale:—Male teachers: first class, 20 at the rate of 6*l.* a year each; second class, 20 at the rate of 4*l.* a year each. Female teachers: first class, 20 at the rate of 5*l.* a year each; second class, 20 at the rate of 3*l.* a year each.

The number of pupils on the rolls of our model schools, in Marlborough-street, upon the 31st of December, 1860, was—males, 491; females, 497; infants, 421; making a total of 1,509.

We trained during the year, and supported at the public expense, 253 national teachers, of whom 164 were males, and 89 females. We also trained 38 teachers not connected with national schools, who supported themselves during their attendance at the model schools. The total number of teachers trained in 1860 was 291. Of the 253 teachers of national schools trained during the year, 23 were of the Established Church, 40 were Presbyterians, and 190 Roman Catholics. The total number of male and female teachers trained from the commencement of our proceedings to the 31st of December, 1860, is 5,640. We do not include in this last number those teachers who, at the time of their training, were unconnected with national schools.

The following is the scale of salaries at present attached to the various grades of classification:—Principal teachers—first class, first division, males, 52*l.*; females, 42*l.*: second division, males, 44*l.*; females, 36*l.*: third division, males, 38*l.*; females, 30*l.* Second class—first division, males, 32*l.*; females, 26*l.*: second division, males, 28*l.*; females, 24*l.* Third class—first division, males, 24*l.*; females, 20*l.*: second division, males, 18*l.*; females, 16*l.* Probationers, males, 15*l.*; females, 14*l.* Male assistants—unclassified, 15*l.*; if classed 3^d, 18*l.*; if classed 3^d, or higher, 24*l.* Female assistants in girls' and mixed schools—unclassified, 14*l.*; if classed 3^d, 16*l.*; if classed 3^d, or higher, 20*l.* Work-mistresses—teachers of needlework only, 8*l.*; acting also as junior literary assistants, 14*l.*

TRADE.

ACCOUNTS RELATING TO THE TRADE OF THE UNITED KINGDOM,
AN ACCOUNT of the IMPORTS and CONSUMPTION of the PRINCIPAL ARTICLES
of FOREIGN and COLONIAL MERCHANDISE in the Year ended 31st
December, 1861.

Articles Free of Duty.

Animals, Living ...	number	450,322	Oil:—		
Ashes	cwts.	129,043	Train, Blubber, and		
Bark	"	237,611	Spermaceti ...	tuns	19,176
Bones	tons	66,509	Palm	cwts.	740,332
Brimstone... ..	cwts.	865,646	Cocoa Nut	"	274,992
Bristles	lbs.	2,036,880	Olive	tuns	17,324
Caoutchouc	cwts.	57,834	Seed Oil, of all kinds	"	8,874
Clocks and Watches:—			Oil Seed Cakes	tons	113,725
Clocks	number	270,395	Potatoes	cwts.	385,446
Watches	"	170,651	Provisions:—		
Cotton, Raw	cwts.	11,223,078	Bacon and Hams	"	515,953
Cotton Manufactures	value	£783,043	Beef, Salt	"	141,683
Cream of Tartar	cwts.	29,978	Pork, Salt	"	125,313
Dyes and Dyeing Stuffs:—			Butter	"	993,657
Cochineal	cwts.	30,013	Cheese	"	706,395
Indigo	"	83,109	Eggs	number	203,313,360
Lacdye	"	11,943	Lard	cwts.	324,691
Logwood	tons	25,037	Quicksilver	lbs.	1,915,909
Madder and Madder			Rice, not in the husk	cwts.	3,305,632
Root	cwts.	299,899	Saltpetre	"	313,919
Garancine	"	28,596	Cubic Nitre	"	512,744
Shumac	tons	19,526	Seeds:—		
Terra Japonica, or			Clover	"	198,120
Gambier	"	2,742	Flaxseed and Linseed	qrs.	1,160,270
Cutch	"	965	Rape	"	249,635
Valonia	"	19,950	Silk:—		
Elephants' Teeth	cwts.	10,886	Raw	lbs.	8,710,681
Flax	"	1,333,679	Waste	cwts.	29,627
Fruit—Lemons & Oranges	bushels	1,295,335	Thrown	lbs.	124,574
Guano	tons	178,423	Silk Manufactures of Eu-		
Hair:—			rope:—		
Goats' Hair or Wool.	lbs.	3,334,748	Broad Stuffs: Silk or		
Manufactures of Hair			Satin	"	1,060,006
and of Goats' Wool	value	£363,941	Broad Stuffs: Gauze,		
Hemp:—			Crape, and Velvet.	"	80,261
Hemp and Tow	cwts.	792,054	Ribbons, of all kinds.	"	854,223
Jute	"	932,638	Plush for making hats	"	89,608
Hides, Untanned:—			Silk Manufactures of India	pieces	130,769
Dry	"	275,988	Spices:—		
Wet	"	553,922	Cassia Lignea	lbs.	283,869
Hides, Tanned	lbs.	5,156,532	Cinnamon	"	760,740
Leather Manufactures:—			Cloves	"	595,543
Boots, Shoes, and Go-			Ginger	cwts.	19,314
loshes of all kinds.	pairs	420,261	Nutmegs	lbs.	565,213
Boot Fronts	"	436,188	Pimento	cwts.	30,453
Gloves	"	6,126,360	Tallow	"	1,309,574
Metals:—			Tar	lasts	14,406
Copper Ore	tons	74,163	Turpentine	cwts.	112,312
Copper Regulus	"	20,317	Wool:—		
Copper Unwrought			Sheep	lbs.	143,884,514
and part Wrought.	cwts.	315,760	Alpaca and the Llama	"	3,106,008
Iron, in Bars	tons	35,489	Woolen Rags, torn up to		
Steel	"	3,806	be used as Wool	"	17,028,704
Lead, Pig and Sheet.	"	23,109	Woolen Manufactures:—		
Spelter or Zinc	"	24,851	Manufactures not		
Tin	cwts.	73,062	made up	value	£987,731
			Shawls Scarfs, and		
			Handkerchiefs	lbs.	612,601
			Yeast, dried	cwts.	92,199

SERIES A.

F

[53]

Articles Subject to Duty.

Cocoa lbs.	9,080,288	Sugar, Unrefined:—	
Coffee "	83,532,525	1st Quality (equal to	
Corn:—		White Clayed) ... cwt.	75,232
Wheat qra.	6,912,815	2nd Quality (not equal	
Barley "	1,400,401	to White, but equal	
Oats "	1,859,781	to Brown Clayed)... "	4,228,790
Peas "	399,799	3rd Quality (not equal	
Beans "	560,581	to Brown Clayed)... "	6,101,711
Indian Corn or Maize	3,090,352	Sugar, Refined ... "	245,854
Wheat Meal and Flour cwt.	6,152,938	Cane Juice "	125,742
Indian Corn Meal ... "	9,441	Molasses "	1,294,572
Fruit:—		Tea lbs.	96,577,382
Currants "	832,757	Timber and Wood:—	
Raisins "	386,986	Deals, Battens, Boards loads	1,726,617
Hops "	148,850	Staves, not exceeding	
Mahogany tons	53,106	72 inches long ... "	48,323
Spices:—		Timber "	1,334,519
Pepper lbs.	14,684,389	Tobacco:—	
Spirits:—		Stemmed lbs.	12,096,818
Rum proof galls.	8,114,898	Unstemmed "	38,647,145
Brandy "	2,093,606	Manufactured, and	
Geneva "	148,994	Snuff "	2,110,429
		Wine:—	
		Red galls.	4,793,640
		White... .. "	6,258,796

AN ACCOUNT of the COMPUTED REAL VALUE of the PRINCIPAL ARTICLES
of FOREIGN and COLONIAL MERCHANDISE Imported in the Year ended
31st of December, 1861.

Coffee, Raw £	2,628,694	Provisions:—	
Corn:—		Bacon £	1,240,474
Wheat "	19,041,464	Butter "	4,902,394
Barley "	2,130,664	Cheese "	1,636,799
Oats "	2,049,072	Rice, not in the Husk ...	2,127,126
Peas "	715,144	Saltpetre "	509,698
Beans... .. "	989,173	Cubic Nitre "	334,091
Indian Corn or Maize	4,879,540	Seeds, Flax and Linseed...	3,108,055
Wheatmeal and Flour ...	4,945,635	Silk:—	
Cotton, Raw "	38,653,398	Raw "	7,705,277
Cotton Manufactures not made up	783,043	Thrown "	201,885
Flax "	3,423,137	Spirits:—	
Fruit:—		Rum "	790,010
Currants "	917,408	Brandy "	928,482
Raisins "	553,066	Geneva "	15,228
Guano "	2,022,288	Sugar, Unrefined:—	
Hemp "	1,153,915	1st Quality (equal to White	
Jute "	740,417	Clayed) "	112,825
Hides, Untanned:—		2nd Quality (not equal to	
Dry "	1,045,384	White, but equal to Brown	
Wet "	1,475,108	Clayed) "	5,433,826
Tanned "	371,291	3rd Quality (not equal to	
Indigo "	2,977,079	Brown Clayed) "	6,618,488
Metals:—		" Refined, and Sugar Candy	425,922
Copper Ore "	1,181,617	Molasses "	661,156
Copper Regulus "	826,629	Tallow "	8,311,717
Iron in Bars, Unwrought	395,060	Tea "	6,850,561
Lead, Pig and Sheet ...	440,092	Timber and Wood:—	
Spelter "	473,305	Deals, Battens, Boards, or	
Tin, in Blocks "	435,277	other Timber or Wood,	
Oil:—		sawn or split "	5,320,049
Train, Blubber, and Sper-		Timber or Wood, not sawn	
maceti "	,011,585	or split, or otherwise	
Palm "	1,579,953	dressed, except hewn, and	
Olive "	984,985	not otherwise charged	
Oil Seed Cakes "	970,682	with duty "	4,610,886

Tobacco:—				Wool:—			
Stemmed	£	569,426		Sheep and Lambs'	£	9,366,296	
Unstemmed		1,348,305		Alpaca and Llama tribe		352,138	
Manufactured, and Cigars		277,416		Woollen Rags		284,429	
Wine:—				Woollen Manufacturers not made up		987,731	
Red		1,602,636		Total		£173,687,023	
White		2,259,597					

ABSTRACT of TOTAL VALUE of ENUMERATED IMPORTS in each Month of 1861.

January	£	6,323,338	July	£	17,748,952
February		11,923,199	August		14,572,806
March		16,065,090	September		14,838,827
April		17,509,940	October		13,254,939
May		14,638,552	November		12,030,833
June		15,806,230	December		18,977,699

AN ACCOUNT of the EXPORTS of the PRINCIPAL ARTICLES of FOREIGN and COLONIAL MERCHANDISE in the Year ended 31st December, 1861.

Cheese	cwts.	8,240	Silk Manufactures of Europe:—		
Cocoa	lbs.	4,508,297	Broad Stuffs: Silk or		
Coffee:—			Satin	lbs.	10,240
Of British Possessions	"	37,210,956	Broad Stuffs: Gauze, Crape, and Velvet	"	2,051
Foreign	"	9,583,548	Ribbons of all kinds	"	8,363
Corn:—			Silk Manufactures of India:—		
Wheat	qrs.	235,444	Tussore Cloths	pieces	134,849
Wheatmeal or Flour	cwts.	291,509	Spices:—		
Cotton, Raw	"	2,662,947	Cassia Lignea	lbs.	636,458
Cotton, Manufactures	value	£139,878	Cinnamon	"	755,911
Dyes and Dyeing Stuffs:—			Cloves	"	306,057
Cochineal	cwts.	15,099	Ginger	cwts.	7,155
Indigo	"	67,435	Nutmegs	lbs.	170,470
Lacdye	"	3,508	Pepper	"	8,065,954
Logwood	tons.	3,847	Pimento	cwts.	25,455
Terra Japonica	"	1,578	Spirits:—		
Cutch	"	973	Rum	proof gals.	2,337,493
Fruit:—			Brandy	"	534,707
Currants	cwts.	63,991	Geneva	"	104,587
Raisins	"	41,848	Unenumerated, not sweetened	"	151,288
Guano	tons	12,371	Mixed in Bond	"	1,127,780
Hides:—			Sugar:—		
Untanned, Dry	cwts.	198,598	Unrefined	cwts.	467,498
" Wet	"	88,141	Refined and Candy	"	35,918
Hops	"	4,642	Molasses	"	104,548
Leather Manufactures:—			Tallow		
Gloves	pairs	66,408	Tea	lbs.	12,847,026
Metals:—			Tobacco:—		
Copper	cwts.	78,459	Stemmed	"	158,164
Tin	"	19,173	Unstemmed	"	7,896,054
Oil:—			Manufactured, and Snuff	"	1,292,081
Palm	"	175,070	Wine:—		
Cocoa Nut	"	218,654	Red	galls.	754,543
Olive	tuns	1,342	White	"	1,115,607
Quicksilver	lbs.	1,317,039	Mixed in Bond	"	53,305
Rice, not in the Husk	cwts.	1,722,067	Wool:—		
Saltpetre	"	18,629	British Possessions	lbs.	44,748,508
Seed:—			Foreign	"	9,576,962
Flax and Linseed	qrs.	97,288	Alpaca and the Llama Tribe	"	51,634
Rape	"	76,821	Woollen Manufactures	value	£35,636
Silk:—					
Raw	lbs.	4,096,784			
Waste, Knubs, and Husks	cwts.	835			
Thrown	lbs.	82,780			

AN ACCOUNT of the EXPORTS of the PRINCIPAL and OTHER ARTICLES of
BRITISH and IRISH PRODUCE and MANUFACTURES in the Year ended
31st December, 1861.

ARTICLES.	Quantities.	Declared Value.	ARTICLES.	Quantities.	Declared Value.
Apparel and Slops:—		£	Cotton Yarn— <i>cont.</i>		£
To British Possessions			Hanse Towns . . lbs.	30,529,788	1,538,825
In South Africa . value £	..	177,174	Holland . . . "	37,376,680	3,073,130
Australia . . . "	..	1,304,691	Belgium . . . "	962,195	67,534
Other Countries . . . "	..	771,706	Tuscany . . . "	5,123,152	390,514
Beer and Ale:—			Papal Territories . . . "	2,608,504	102,267
To United States . . barrels	7,414	31,557	Naples and Sicily . . . "	11,347,068	463,497
British East Indies . . . "	92,454	292,254	Austrian Territories . . . "	4,815,352	209,077
Australia . . . "	142,801	561,848	Turkey . . . "	8,818,415	407,765
Other Countries . . . "	138,388	531,379	China and Hong Kong . . . "	6,733,914	307,328
Books, Printed . . . cwt.	30,789	445,099	British India:—		
Butter "	101,407	484,333	Bombay . . . "	5,421,584	318,241
Candles, Stearine . . lbs.	5,722,838	378,953	Madras . . . "	4,686,760	247,517
Cheese cwt.	31,663	130,530	Bengal . . . "	18,744,067	836,672
Coals and Culm:—			Singapore, &c. . . "	1,560,387	96,798
To Russia tons	406,617	175,079	Ceylon . . . "	237,950	15,899
Denmark "	558,457	224,689	Other Countries . . . "	19,453,061	1,092,177
Prussia "	453,364	171,830	Earthenware and Porcelain:—		
Hanse Towns "	586,605	238,468	To United States . value £	..	216,853
Holland "	268,925	112,590	Brazil "	..	84,668
France "	1,452,933	617,754	British N. America . . . "	..	85,416
Spain and Canaries . . . "	496,435	253,490	" East Indies . . . "	..	85,733
Turkey "	172,975	80,675	Australia "	..	88,717
United States "	371,705	347,930	Other Countries . . . "	..	508,373
Other Countries "	3,062,218	1,470,571	Fish, Herrings:—		
Cordage and Cables . . cwt.	88,243	167,511	To Prussia barrels	167,189	243,777
Cottons: Calicoes, Cambrics, and Muslins,			Hanover "	72,365	106,599
Fustians and Mixed			Other Countries . . . "	124,609	164,017
Stuffs:—			Fish, Other Sorts . value £	..	124,173
To Hanse Towns . . . yards	55,545,957	1,019,028	Furniture "	..	263,707
Holland "	37,700,094	692,470	Glass, Flint cwt.	79,238	219,374
Portugal, Azores, and Madeira . . . "	69,417,454	908,135	Glass, Window "	36,395	47,440
Sardinia "	22,139,644	268,408	Glass, Common Bottles . . . "	547,126	274,860
Tuscany "	22,414,611	339,162	Glass, Plate value £	..	47,633
Naples and Sicily . . . "	44,484,357	741,237	Haberdashery and Millinery:—		
Austrian Territories . . . "	18,902,196	283,824	To Egypt value £	..	138,835
Turkey "	148,515,686	1,277,865	United States "	..	628,819
Syria and Palestine . . . "	71,142,561	769,188	Channel Islands "	..	138,712
Egypt "	77,346,567	867,578	British N. America . . . "	..	493,090
West Coast of Africa, not particularly designated "	24,811,875	395,910	" West Indies "	..	149,840
United States "	74,679,515	1,254,269	" Possessions in South Africa "	..	173,905
Foreign West Indies . . . "	62,242,154	965,079	" East Indies "	..	129,212
Mexico "	18,779,984	224,033	Australia "	..	799,863
New Granada "	38,571,561	618,072	Other Countries "	..	781,287
Brazil "	168,209,195	2,477,078	Hardwares and Cutlery:—		
Buenos Ayres "	39,830,447	608,044	To Russia cwt.	29,499	128,784
Chili "	48,428,369	604,950	Hanse Towns "	31,166	198,005
Peru "	34,370,919	509,183	France "	25,075	200,665
China and Hong Kong . . . "	243,654,141	3,177,043	United States "	75,728	651,416
Java "	48,072,958	756,951	Cuba "	16,379	53,226
Philippine Islands "	34,421,491	596,167	Brazil "	42,775	148,345
Gibraltar "	22,587,088	358,821	British N. America "	37,738	159,451
British N. America "	39,492,899	635,687	" Possessions in South Africa "	..	29,695
" West Indies "	42,980,967	607,453	" East Indies "	..	52,041
" Possessions in South Africa "	14,938,367	291,850	Australia "	..	89,105
" East Indies:—			Other Countries "	..	272,236
Bombay "	284,813,963	3,433,818	Jute, manufactures, not made up yards	6,531,090	117,279
Madras "	14,372,650	210,926	Jute, manufactures, made up value £	..	9,798
Bengal "	436,462,304	5,455,485	Jute, yarn lbs.	7,036,479	84,943
Singapore, &c. "	49,981,991	616,189	Leather, Tanned, Unwrought cwt.	40,215	362,179
Ceylon "	17,917,196	302,673	Leather, Wrought:—		
Australia "	36,645,203	776,854	To Australia lbs.	4,589,122	1,117,303
Other Countries "	214,199,413	3,247,868	Other Countries "	2,061,805	410,735
Cotton Lace and Patent			Leather, Saddlery, and Harness:—		
Net value £	..	285,220	To British East Indies value £	..	26,348
Stockings doz. pairs	697,513	197,925	Australia "	..	142,301
Counterpanes and Small Wares value £	..	395,266	Other Countries "	..	138,537
Thread for Sewing . lbs.	5,129,348	574,704	Linens (Cloths of all kinds and Cambrics):—		
Cotton Yarn:—			To Hanse Towns . . . yards	10,762,495	299,927
To Russia "	3,260,877	212,828	United States "	21,169,147	642,696
Prussia "	19,227,543	936,619	Cuba "	8,745,905	293,720
Hanover "	2,969,052	166,303			

ARTICLES.	Quantities.	Declared Value.	ARTICLES.	Quantities.	Declared Value.
Linen—cont.		£	Iron, Steel, Unwrought:—		£
St. Thomas . . . yards	4,339,995	109,989	To United States . . . tons	8,830	308,393
Brasil . . . "	7,556,695	206,794	Other Countries . . . "	12,966	419,548
British West Indies . . . "	4,616,813	108,547	Copper:		
East Indies . . . "	3,344,975	126,580	To Holland . . . cwt.	6,763	29,385
Australia . . . "	4,957,734	173,341	Belgium . . . "	7,831	37,344
Other Countries . . . "	50,705,981	1,615,302	France . . . "	48,466	246,393
Linen, Lace of Thread, value £	..	2,738	Other Countries . . . "	24,877	123,166
Linen Thread . . . lbs.	2,406,871	269,778	Copper, Sheets and Nails:—		
Linen Tapes and small wares . . . value £	..	10,633	To Hanse Towns . . . "	24,653	111,356
Linen Yarn:—			Holland . . . "	19,437	67,924
To Hanse Towns . . . lbs.	5,963,337	431,515	Turkey . . . "	2,358	12,637
Holland . . . "	2,817,517	142,924	United States . . . "	3,124	14,154
Belgium . . . "	1,187,675	73,236	British East Indies . . . "	125,231	606,538
Spain and Canaries . . . "	8,803,983	458,142	Other Countries . . . "	121,891	593,433
Other Countries . . . "	9,100,886	509,963	Copper, Wrought, or other Sorts . . . "	47,197	276,677
Machinery: Steam Engines:—			Brass of all Sorts . . . "	31,069	173,773
To Russia . . . value £	..	195,511	Lead:—		
Spain . . . "	..	232,224	To Russia . . . tons	3,875	80,624
British East Indies . . . "	..	269,620	France . . . "	665	12,885
Australia . . . "	..	102,557	United States . . . "	767	16,151
Other Countries . . . "	..	343,546	China and Hong Kong . . . "	5,623	122,338
Machinery: Other Sorts:—			British East Indies . . . "	1,812	40,077
To Russia . . . "	..	456,889	Australia . . . "	1,422	32,263
Hanse Towns . . . "	..	159,142	Other Countries . . . "	5,093	118,644
Holland . . . "	..	236,459	Lead Ore, Red and White, and Litharge of Lead		
Belgium . . . "	..	133,338	Tin, Unwrought . . . cwt.	5,841	147,311
France . . . "	..	249,047	Tin Plates:—	56,551	348,300
Spain . . . "	..	171,150	To United States . . . value £	..	417,260
British East Indies . . . "	..	426,173	British East Indies . . . "	..	31,628
Australia . . . "	..	123,696	Australia . . . "	..	27,712
Other Countries . . . "	..	920,328	Other Countries . . . "	..	490,880
Metals: Iron, Pig:—			Oil, Seed:—		
To Prussia . . . tons	29,995	80,168	To Hanse Towns . . . galls.	783,664	96,780
Holland . . . "	56,539	156,354	Holland . . . "	1,168,704	140,717
France . . . "	111,780	308,235	France . . . "	2,265,299	317,879
United States . . . "	33,300	88,224	United States . . . "	12,068	1,680
Other Countries . . . "	153,932	412,243	Other Countries . . . "	3,882,699	507,335
Iron, Bar, Bolt, and Rod:—			Painters' Colours . . . value £	..	470,630
To Hanse Towns . . . "	7,947	73,158	Pickles and Sauces . . . "	..	246,213
Holland . . . "	10,302	72,180	Plate, Plated Ware, Jewellery, and Watches . . . "	..	448,458
France . . . "	18,607	122,231	Salt:—		
Sardinia . . . "	17,078	114,127	To Russia . . . tons	66,652	41,878
Naples and Sicily . . . "	16,580	106,990	United States . . . "	172,206	78,766
Turkey . . . "	5,130	31,535	British N. America . . . "	82,437	35,524
United States . . . "	22,872	176,596	East Indies . . . "	176,037	102,827
British N. America . . . "	21,566	153,241	Other Countries . . . "	206,489	111,173
East Indies . . . "	46,801	328,648	Silk Manufactures:—		
Australia . . . "	6,144	67,890	To United States . . . lbs.	75,218	98,723
Other Countries . . . "	83,632	686,947	Australia . . . "	89,221	126,365
Iron, Railway, of all kinds:—			Other Countries . . . "	411,379	515,551
To Russia . . . "	25,674	231,641	Other Articles (of Silk only) Entered at Value:—		
Sweden . . . "	10,206	78,288	To Hanse Towns . . . value £	..	33,551
Prussia . . . "	7,275	72,982	United States . . . "	..	24,305
Hanover . . . "	3,122	29,713	Other Countries . . . "	..	158,772
Holland . . . "	4,154	31,730	Silk Manufactures mixed with other Materials . . . "	..	429,478
France . . . "	17,488	108,413	Silk, Thrown:—		
Spain . . . "	46,145	332,256	To Belgium . . . lbs.	107,466	127,821
Austrian Territories . . . "	660	6,610	France . . . "	142,803	186,412
United States . . . "	28,395	176,897	Holland . . . "	176,219	196,006
Cuba . . . "	4,459	31,586	Other Countries . . . "	118,968	123,240
British North America . . . "	4,698	33,332	Silk, Twist and Yarn:—		
East Indies . . . "	107,579	916,787	To France . . . "	261,635	133,362
Australia . . . "	25,489	182,225	Other Countries . . . "	183,151	142,242
Other Countries . . . "	92,038	870,927	Soap . . . cwt.	185,932	230,163
Iron Wire . . . "	11,630	207,317	Soda:—		
Iron, Cast:—			To United States . . . "	426,226	204,373
To Egypt . . . "	561	7,556	Other Countries . . . "	991,180	399,068
United States . . . "	1,304	11,322	Spirits (British):—		
Cuba . . . "	1,878	22,990	To France . . . galls.	2,011,568	216,228
Brasil . . . "	5,719	68,699	Portugal, Azores, and Madeira . . . "	1,080,103	101,906
British East Indies . . . "	12,478	140,733	United States . . . "	108,489	17,252
Australia . . . "	5,940	62,013	Australia . . . "	294,072	80,383
Other Countries . . . "	46,092	288,001	Other Countries . . . "	582,294	96,490
Iron, Wrought, of all kinds:—			Stationery:—		
To Russia . . . "	9,646	130,483	To British East Indies, value £	..	125,788
Prussia . . . "	9,857	87,107	Australia . . . "	..	219,817
Hanse Towns . . . "	6,719	97,672	Other Countries . . . "	..	302,261
Holland . . . "	12,234	149,986			
Spain . . . "	10,041	169,668			
United States . . . "	13,592	173,800			
British N. America . . . "	12,576	170,960			
East Indies . . . "	28,607	461,115			
Australia . . . "	12,362	312,323			
Other Countries . . . "	73,410	1,115,909			

ARTICLES.	Quantities.	Declared Value.	ARTICLES.	Quantities.	Declared Value.
Sugar, Refined . . . cwts.	141,744	£ 348,976	Woolens, Entered at Value . . . value £	..	£ 405,847
Telegraphic Wire and Apparatus . . . value £	..	255,310	Woolen Stockings . . . doz. prs.	129,116	84,742
Wool, Sheep and Lambs' :—			Woolens: Worsted Stuffs :—		
To Belgium . . . lbs.	1,197,880	= 93,679	To Hanse Towns . . . pieces	485,966	806,855
France . . . "	10,604,815	782,698	Holland . . . "	186,116	274,250
Other Countries . . . "	3,912,596	266,981	Belgium . . . "	65,902	106,088
Woolens: Cloths of all Kinds, Duffels, and Kerseymeres :—			United States . . . "	266,053	469,813
To United States . . . pieces	74,737	393,423	China & Hong Kong . . . "	166,048	256,145
Brazil . . . "	39,804	144,141	British N. America . . . "	115,503	150,515
Buenos Ayres . . . "	25,671	132,035	" East Indies . . . "	24,981	70,884
Chili . . . "	18,889	100,769	Australia . . . "	129,669	217,208
Peru . . . "	30,871	177,710	Other Countries . . . "	638,373	965,980
China and Hong Kong . . . "	81,611	353,614	Woolen and Worsted Yarn :—		
British N. America . . . "	53,011	213,806	To Russia . . . cwts.	22,423	240,206
" East Indies . . . "	53,667	251,537	Hanover . . . "	6,652	88,851
Australia . . . "	34,872	234,520	Hanse Towns . . . "	127,620	1,901,359
Other Countries . . . "	168,793	977,993	Holland . . . "	52,377	642,983
Woolens: Mixed Stuffs, Flannels, Blankets, and Carpets :—			Belgium . . . "	9,925	122,788
To Hanse Towns . . . yards	2,385,297	191,499	France . . . "	10,262	229,902
France . . . "	9,112,429	684,296	Other Countries . . . "	15,748	216,011
Naples and Sicily . . . "	2,402,317	139,374			
United States . . . "	27,294,063	1,109,176	Total declared Value :—		
Brazil . . . "	1,612,815	89,830	Enumerated Articles	114,821,855
British N. America . . . "	4,040,798	221,103	Unenumerated Articles	10,293,278
" East Indies . . . "	987,512	56,238			
Australia . . . "	6,226,129	372,971	All Articles	125,115,133
Other Countries . . . "	24,032,284	1,899,955			

TOTAL DECLARED VALUE of BRITISH PRODUCE EXPORTED in each Month of 1861 :—

January	£8,344,701	July	£10,094,260
February	8,373,718	August	12,337,441
March	10,950,830	September	11,220,206
April	10,905,213	October	11,684,910
May	11,206,070	November	9,874,762
June	10,362,893	December	9,760,129

AN ACCOUNT of the QUANTITIES of certain PRINCIPAL ARTICLES of IMPORTED MERCHANDISE (subject to Duties of Customs, remaining in the Bonded Warehouses of the United Kingdom on the 31st December, 1861.

Cocoa lbs.	2,857,065	Tobacco :—	
Coffee "	23,689,272	Unmanufactured ... lbs.	70,523,892
Fruit :—		Manufactured, and Snuff "	1,237,294
Currants cwts.	440,930		
Raisins "	99,909	Wine :—	
Spices :—		From British Possessions galls.	460,007
Pepper lbs.	8,950,661	From Holland "	214,859
Spirits :—		" France "	1,256,162
Rum proof galls.	7,620,708	" Portugal and Madeira "	3,453,170
Brandy "	3,077,323	From Spain and the Canaries "	4,659,214
Sugar :—		From Naples and Sicily "	223,269
Refined and Candy ... cwts.	51,763	" other Countries "	573,374
Unrefined, 1st Quality ...	18,804	Mixed in Bond "	481,925
" 2nd ditto "	762,687		
" 3rd ditto "	1,549,823	Total of Wine	11,321,980
Total Unrefined	2,331,314		
Molasses cwts.	210,668		
Tea lbs.	68,741,973		

AN ACCOUNT of the COMPUTED REAL VALUE of the IMPORTS and EXPORTS of GOLD and SILVER BULLION and SPECIE registered in the Year ended 31st December, 1861.

IMPORTS.

COUNTRIES FROM WHICH IMPORTED.	GOLD.	SILVER.	TOTAL.
	£	£	£
Russia, Northern Ports	557,353	...	557,353
Hanse Towns	364,394	79,988	444,382
Holland	6,584	130,289	136,873
Belgium	515,250	314,189	829,439
France	2,504,493	689,522	3,194,015
Portugal	7,870	118,087	125,957
Spain	1,255	19,708	20,963
Gibraltar	18,192	17,000	35,192
Malta	9,454	25,177	34,631
Turkey	27,612	1,455	29,067
Egypt	15,509	2,496	18,005
West Coast of Africa	78,273	1,555	79,827
China	4,867	785	5,652
Australia	6,331,225	603	6,331,828
British Columbia	4,785	341	5,126
Mexico, South America, and West Indies ...	1,600,236	5,115,621	6,715,857
United States	38,434	28,249	66,683
Other Countries	78,152	38,093	116,245
Total £	12,163,937	6,583,108	18,747,045

EXPORTS.

COUNTRIES TO WHICH EXPORTED.	GOLD.	SILVER.	TOTAL.
	£	£	£
Hanse Towns	15,410	318,558	333,968
Holland	242	348,438	348,680
Belgium	5,057	187,318	192,375
France	998,304	1,052,737	2,051,041
Portugal and Madeira	336,921	641	337,562
Spain	647,556	2,690	650,246
Turkey
Egypt (in transit to India and China) ...	796,495	7,279,839	8,076,334
British Possessions in South Africa ...	133,360	10,104	143,464
Mauritius	2,033	2,033
Danish West Indies	52,466	39,177	91,643
United States	7,297,887	84,066	7,381,953
British North America	631,576	14,368	645,944
Brazil	20,286	149,527	169,813
Chili
Other Countries	302,812	83,780	386,592
Total	11,238,372	9,573,276	20,811,648

AN ACCOUNT of the GROSS PRODUCE of, and TOTAL REVENUE from, DUTIES of CUSTOMS in the Year ended 31st December, 1861.

Gross Produce of Customs Duties	£23,657,513
Payments out of Gross Produce; for		
Drawbacks	153,059
Allowances on Quantities Over-Entered, Damages, &c.	...	57,928
Total	£210,987

Total Revenue from Customs Duties with-
out deducting charges of collection ... } £23,446,526

AN ACCOUNT of the Gross Amount produced by CUSTOMS DUTIES upon the PRINCIPAL and other ARTICLES of FOREIGN and COLONIAL MERCHANDISE, in the Year ended 31st December, 1861.

Cocoa	£14,903	Sugar, Molasses :—		
Coffee :—			From British Possessions out		
From British Possessions out			of Europe	£54,168
of Europe	405,860	From Foreign Countries	105,343
From Foreign Countries	36,393	Tea	5,521,320
Corn :—			Timber and Wood :—		
Wheat	348,348	Not sawn or split, or otherwise		
Barley	70,301	dressed, except hewn :—		
Oats	93,780	From British Possessions	30,597
Peas	20,147	Foreign	34,272
Beans	28,224	Deals, Battens, Boards, or other		
Indian Corn or Maize	155,331	Timber or Wood, sawn or		
Wheatmeal and Flour	116,898	split :—		
Other kinds of Grain and			From British Possessions	84,640
Meal	4,604	Foreign	87,235
Fruits :—			Firewood	5,916
Currants	219,491	Lathwood	3,654
Figs	28,060	Tobacco :—		
Raisins	99,177	Stemmed	2,896,922
Hops	99,720	Unstemmed	2,564,173
Spices :—			Manufactured, and Snuff	142,937
Pepper	100,106	Wine :—		
Spirits :—			Under 18 degrees	52,012
Rum	1,755,129	" 26 "	40,187
Brandy	833,513	" 40 "	979,242
Geneva	52,615	" 45 "	26,099
Sugar, Unrefined :—			" 40 " in bott.	2 5	121,102
From British Possessions in			Arrears, unclassified, at old		
America	2,236,430	duty	891
From Mauritius	1,025,024	Other Articles	169,289
From British Possessions in			Total	£23,657,513
the East Indies	372,813			
From Foreign Countries	2,396,277			
Sugar, Refined, and Candy :—					
From British Possessions out					
of Europe	828			
From Foreign Countries	223,542			

QUANTITIES of the several ARTICLES charged with DUTIES of EXCISE, and free of DUTY; the Quantities exported, and the Quantities retained for Home Consumption in the UNITED KINGDOM, in the Year ended 31st December, 1861.

ARTICLES.				Charged with Duty and Free of Duty.	Exported to Foreign Countries on Drawback, and Free of Duty.	Retained for Consumption in the United Kingdom.
ENGLAND AND WALES.						
Chicory
Hops
Malt:—						
Charged with Duty
" Used in Beer Exported
(estimated)
Free of Duty for distillation and exportation
Total
Spirits:—						
Charged with Duty
Free of Duty for Exportation
Total
Paper
SCOTLAND.						
Malt:—						
Charged with Duty
" Used in Beer exported
(estimated)
Free of Duty for distillation and exportation
Total
Spirits:—						
Charged with Duty
Free of Duty for exportation
Total
Paper
IRELAND.						
Malt:—						
Charged with Duty
" Used in Beer exported
(estimated)
Free of Duty for distillation and exportation
Total
Spirits:—						
Charged with Duty
Free of Duty for exportation
Total
Paper

ARTICLES.				Charged with Duty and Free of Duty.	Exported to Foreign Countries on Drawback, and Free of Duty.	Retained for Consumption in the United Kingdom.
UNITED KINGDOM.						
Chicory	7,429	...	7,429
Hops	23,953,491	523,321	23,430,170
Malt:—						
Charged with Duty		189,405	
Used in Beer exported	44,141,422	886,929	43,065,088
(estimated)			
Free of Duty for distillation	3,793,192	208,180	3,585,012
and exportation			
Total	47,934,614	1,284,514	46,650,100
Spirits:—						
Charged with Duty	20,045,159	346,367	19,698,792
Free of Duty for exportation	4,452,722	4,452,722	...
Total	24,497,881	4,799,089	19,698,792
Paper	150,756,370	17,204,036	133,552,334

SAVINGS' BANKS.

Return of the Weekly and Total Increase or Decrease of Sums paid or withdrawn by the Trustees of Savings' Banks between the 20th November, 1859, and 20th November, 1860, with the Amounts of Stock purchased or sold by the Commissioners for the Reduction of the National Debt, and Amount of Uninvested Balances in the hands of the said Commissioners on account of Savings' Banks during the same period; and also Account of the Number of Depositors, and of Charitable Institutions and Friendly Societies depositing their Funds in Savings' Banks, and of the Sums deposited, divided into Classes, from 20th November, 1859, to 20th November, 1860. 22nd April, 1861. (Lord Monteagle of Brandon.) (79.)

DURING the year the sums paid for purchase of stock, Exchequer bills, and Exchequer and other bonds, was 6,974,496*l.* 12*s.* 10*d.*, and the sums received for sale of stock, &c., 4,735,000*l.* The dividends received by the commissioners on stock invested, and interest on Exchequer bills, amounted to 1,171,001*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.*

The amount of principal money received from, and interest paid and credited to the trustees, including interest due upon the 20th November, 1860, was, from savings' banks, 80,874,640*l.* 12*s.* 4*d.*; from friendly societies, 4,974,160*l.* 15*s.*: total, 85,848,801*l.* 7*s.* 4*d.* The amount of principal and interest money paid to the trustees, including surplus fund drafts, was—to savings' banks, 39,381,161*l.* 8*s.* 4*d.*; to friendly societies, 2,934,207*l.* 16*s.* 2*d.*: total, 42,315,369*l.* 4*s.* 6*d.* The amount of money due to the trustees by the commissioners was—to savings' banks, 41,493,479*l.* 4*s.*; to friendly societies, 2,039,952*l.* 18*s.* 10*d.*: total, 43,533,432*l.* 2*s.* 10*d.* The securities held by the commissioners on the 20th November, 1860, amounted to 40,940,304*l.* 15*s.*, and were valued at 38,004,967*l.* 16*s.* 10*d.* The aggregate amount of interest paid and credited to the trustees of savings' banks and friendly societies, was 34,347,216*l.* 15*s.* 1*d.*; and the aggregate

amount of interest and dividend received by, and due to, the commissioners on the stock, &c., was 30,753,137*l.* 5*s.* 3*d.*

The number of individual depositors, and of charitable institutions and friendly societies depositing their funds in savings' banks, and of the sums deposited, divided into classes, on the 20th November, 1860, was as follows:—

					Number of Depositors.	Amount of Deposit, including Interest.
						£
Not exceeding	£1	227,593	69,297
"	5	312,584	787,755
"	10	202,393	1,412,711
"	15	146,178	1,749,403
"	20	89,438	1,532,566
"	30	154,925	3,716,460
"	40	125,950	4,179,274
"	50	60,951	2,702,563
"	75	103,853	6,299,571
"	100	49,501	4,290,194
"	125	32,216	3,570,029
"	150	19,415	2,647,449
"	200	30,405	5,163,938
Exceeding	200	1,747	374,246
Individual depositors ...					1,557,149	38,495,456
Charitable Institutions ...					16,947	850,371
Friendly Societies ...					11,682	1,912,541
Total ...					1,585,778	41,258,368

POPULATION, REVENUE, &c.

Return of the Population of England, Scotland, and Ireland respectively, according to the Census of 1861; and of the Total Amount of Revenue derived from Taxation of England, Scotland, and Ireland respectively, for the Three Years ending 30th December, 1860; showing also the Number of Representatives which each of these Divisions of the United Kingdom would have, if the 658 Members of the House of Commons were allotted to them proportionately to such Population. (Mr. Kinnaird.) 25th July, 1861. (8, of 1862.)

IN 1861, the population of England was 20,061,725, and the aggregate amount of revenue, derived from inland revenue, customs, and post-office, for the three years 1858, 1859, and 1860, was 149,524,475*l.* The population of Scotland was 3,061,329, and the total amount of revenue, 22,451,980*l.* The population of Ireland was 5,764,543, and the total amount of revenue was 19,850,936*l.* The total population of the United Kingdom was 28,887,597; and the total taxation was, in 1858, 61,591,424*l.*; in 1859, 63,429,023*l.*; and in 1860, 66,986,944*l.*: making a total for the three years of 191,827,391*l.* The number of representatives which each of the divisions of the United Kingdom would have if the 658 members of the House of Commons were allotted to them, would be as follows:—Proportionately to population—England, 457; Scotland, 70; Ireland, 131. Proportionately to amount of revenue from taxation—England, 513;

Scotland, 77; Ireland, 68. Proportionately to the mean of such population and revenue—England, 485; Scotland, 74; Ireland, 99. The actual number of members in 1861 was—England, 500; Scotland, 53; Ireland, 105; showing in England, an excess of 15; in Scotland, a shortcoming of 21; and in Ireland, an excess of 6.

INLAND REVENUE.

Fifth Report of the Commissioners of Her Majesty's Inland Revenue, on the Inland Revenue.

In the year ended 31st March, 1861, the excise duties produced 19,534,442*l.*, showing a decrease of 693,546*l.* upon the year 1860. Upon spirits there was a decrease of 553,422*l.*, and the quantity brought to charge was 20,147,824 gallons, against 24,985,192 gallons in 1860. The causes of this decrease were various, but principally a large accumulation of stocks of spirits, bad harvest, and partly also an increased importation of foreign spirits. The exports of spirits in 1861 were 2,195,031 gallons against 2,054,234 in 1860. The changes in the rates of duty since the year 1825 have been as follow:—In 1825, 7*s.* in England, and 2*s.* 10*d.* in Scotland and Ireland; in 1830, 7*s.* 6*d.* in England, and 3*s.* 4*d.* in Scotland and Ireland; in 1835, 7*s.* 6*d.* in England, 3*s.* 4*d.* in Scotland, and 2*s.* 4*d.* in Ireland; in 1840, 7*s.* 10*d.* in England, 3*s.* 8*d.* in Scotland, and 2*s.* 8*d.* in Ireland; in 1842, the same duties in England and Scotland, and 3*s.* 8*d.* in Ireland; in 1843, 7*s.* 10*d.* in England, 3*s.* 8*d.* in Scotland, and 2*s.* 8*d.* in Ireland; in 1853, 7*s.* 10*d.* in England, 4*s.* 8*d.* in Scotland, and 3*s.* 4*d.* in Ireland; in 1854, 7*s.* 10*d.* in England, 6*s.* in Scotland, and 6*s.* 2*d.* in Ireland; in 1855, 8*s.* in England and Scotland, and 6*s.* 2*d.* in Ireland; in 1858, 8*s.* in England, Scotland, and Ireland; and in 1860, at first 8*s.* 1*d.*, and afterwards 10*s.*, uniform in England, Scotland, and Ireland. The number of bushels of malt charged with duty, was 37,368,716 against 44,565,038 in 1860: the decrease was owing to the very inferior quality of the barley of last season's growth.

The stamp duties produced 8,360,769*l.* against 8,032,538*l.* in 1860; viz., deeds, 1,432,106*l.*; bills of exchange, 571,229*l.*; banker's notes, 2,726*l.*; composition for banker's notes, 69,487*l.*; receipts and drafts, 436,602*l.*; probates of wills, 1,288,294*l.*; legacy and succession tax, 2,161,825*l.*; fire insurance, 1,485,540*l.*; marine insurance, 325,342*l.*; patent medicines, 44,786*l.*; cards and dice, 14,533*l.*; Probate Court fee stamps, 57,705*l.*; licences and certificates, 219,251*l.*; gold and silver plate duty, 67,035*l.*; newspapers, 134,090*l.*; law, equity, Exchequer and Chancery fund, Ireland, 38,594*l.*; Admiralty Court fee stamps, 2,447*l.*; and divorce and matrimonial cause fee stamps, 2,619*l.* The steady increase of fire insurance duty is worthy of notice. In 1850, the amount of property insured was 773,021,000*l.*, and the amount of farming stock insured, 61,805,352*l.* In 1860, the amount of property insured was 1,039,891,000*l.*, and the amount of farming stock insured, 73,309,898*l.*

The land and assessed taxes produced 3,144,441*l.* against 3,236,684*l.* in 1860, viz., land tax, 1,145,341*l.*; inhabited houses, 822,936*l.*; servants, 202,205*l.*; carriages, 330,292*l.*; horses, 368,242*l.*; dogs, 197,520*l.*; horse-dealers, 14,110*l.*; hair-powder, 1,157*l.*; armorial bearings, 57,229*l.*; game duty, 3,733*l.*, additional 10 per cent., per Act 3 Vict. c. 17, 1,986*l.* The

property and income-tax produced 10,957,060*l.* in the year ended 31st March, 1861, against 9,666,141*l.* in 1860, viz., Schedule A., 5,043,721*l.*; Schedule B., 600,861*l.*; Schedule C., 1,666,338*l.*; Schedule D., 3,400,255*l.*; Schedule E., 745,885*l.* The annual value of property in the United Kingdom, assessed to the income-tax under Schedule A., for the year ended 5th April, 1860, amounted to 138,950,000*l.* The amount assessed to the different counties was as follows:—Chester, 2,673,000*l.*; Derby, 2,546,000*l.*; Durham, 2,339,000*l.*; Gloucester, 2,288,000*l.*; Kent, 2,493,000*l.*; Lancaster, 11,453,000*l.*; Lincoln, 3,220,000*l.*; Middlesex, 17,682,000*l.*; Northumberland, 2,376,000*l.*; Nottingham, 1,425,000*l.*; Somerset, 3,184,000*l.*; Stafford, 3,601,000*l.*; Surrey, 5,280,000*l.*; Warwick, 2,802,000*l.*; York, 9,620,000*l.*

ARTICLES charged to the ASSESSED TAXES in GREAT BRITAIN in the Year ended 5th April, 1860, and the Amount of DUTY thereon.

—	No. of Articles charged.	Amount of Duty.		
		£	s.	d.
Houses—at 9 <i>d.</i> in the pound	327,878	599,185	8	10½
" 6 <i>d.</i> " 	204,705	227,060	19	10½
Servants	236,121	202,951	9	9
Carriages:—				
With four wheels, drawn by two or more Horses ...	28,155	95,696	2	6
Ditto, ditto, by one Horse	61,067	109,798	2	0
Ditto, with less than four wheels, drawn by two or more Horses	219	492	0	0
Ditto, ditto, by one Horse	162,137	115,546	9	6
Ditto, used by common Carriers	6,019	10,126	6	8
Horses:—				
Horses exceeding thirteen hands used for riding and drawing Carriages chargeable with duty ...	164,861	173,105	2	0
Ditto, used by farmers, clergymen, surgeons, &c. ...	133,988	70,344	13	9
Ditto, exceeding thirteen hands, used in trade ...	179,337	94,153	18	6
Ditto, not exceeding thirteen hands	69,705	32,168	1	3
Dogs	330,857	198,321	0	0
Horse Dealers	1,084	15,757	10	0
Hair Powder	989	1,162	1	6
Armorial Bearings	45,861	57,365	16	5
Game Certificates:—				
Certificates for killing Game	40,918	159,244	0	4
" for sale of Game	1,325	2,915	0	0

ANNUAL AMOUNT of PROPERTY and INCOME charged under each Schedule of the Income-Tax Act, for the Year ended 5th April, 1860, and the Amount of Duty thereon.

Schedules.	Amount of Property and Income charged in			Amount of Duty charged.
	England.	Scotland.	Ireland.	
	£	£	£	£
A.	103,276,204	12,588,250	12,893,829	4,816,518
B.	26,648,480	3,507,233	2,765,387	573,795
C.	28,343,070	—	1,358,213	1,113,799
D.	76,990,577	7,382,513	4,627,922	3,247,087
E.	17,280,000	949,397	1,167,000	712,286
	252,538,331	24,427,393	22,812,351	10,463,485

PATENTS FOR INVENTIONS.

Report of the Commissioners of Patents for Inventions for 1860.

THE Commissioners of Patents appointed under the Patent Law Amendment Act, 1852 (15 and 16 Vict. c. 83), in compliance with the terms of the third section of that Act, make the following report of their proceedings under and in pursuance of the same for the year 1860, in continuance of their report of proceedings for 1859.

The number of applications for provisional protection recorded within the year 1860 was 3,196; the number of patents passed thereon was 2,061; the number of specifications filed in pursuance thereof was 1,965; the number of applications lapsed or forfeited, the applicants having neglected to proceed for their patents within the six months of provisional protection, was 1,135.

The Act 16 Vict. c. 5, enacts that all letters patent for inventions to be granted under the provisions of the Patent Law Amendment Act, 1852, shall be made subject to the condition that the same shall be void at the expiration of three years and seven years respectively from the date thereof, unless there be paid, before the expiration of the said three years and seven years respectively, the stamp duties in the schedule thereunto annexed, viz., 50*l.* at the expiration of the third year, and 100*l.* at the expiration of the seventh year. The patent is granted for 14 years.

Four thousand patents bear date between the 1st October, 1852, and the 17th June, 1854 (being the first 4,000 passed under the provisions of the Patent Law Amendment Act, 1852). The additional progressive stamp duty of 50*l.* was paid, at the end of the third year, on 1,186 of that number, and 2,814 became void. The additional progressive stamp duty of 100*l.* was paid at the end of the seventh year on 390 of the 1,186 patents remaining in force at the end of the third year, and 796 became void. Consequently, nearly 70 per cent. of the 4,000 patents became void at the end of the third year, and nearly 90 per cent. became void at the end of the seventh year.

All the provisional, complete, and final specifications filed in the office upon the patents granted under the Act since 1852 have been printed and published in continuation, with lithographic outline copies of the drawings accompanying the same, according to the provisions of the Act 16 and 17 Vict. c. 115.

The provisional specifications filed in the office and lapsed and forfeited, have also been printed and published in continuation.

Printed certified copies of the specifications filed in the office, as also certified copies of patents, and of the record book of assignments of patents and licences, with copies of such assignments and licences, have been sent, in continuation, to the office of the Director of Chancery in Edinburgh, and the enrolment office of the Court of Chancery in Dublin, pursuant to the Act of 1852 and the Act of 16 and 17 Vict. c. 115.

The work of printing the specifications of patents under the old law, 12,977 in number, and dating from 1711 to 1852, was completed in 1858, copies whereof are sold in the office at the cost of printing and paper.

Abstracts or abridgments of specifications, grouped under the different heads of inventions, are being prepared, and the following subjects have been printed and published:—

Drain tiles and pipes; manufacture of iron and steel; manures; sewing and embroidering; preservation of food; aids to locomotion; steam culture; marine propulsion; watches, clocks, and timekeepers; fire-arms and other weapons; ammunition and accoutrements; paper, pasteboard, papier maché cards, paper-hangings, &c.; typographic, lithographic, and plate printing; bleaching, dyeing, and printing yarns and fabrics; electricity and magnetism, their generation and application; manufacture and application of india-rubber, gutta percha, air, fire, and water proofing; production and application of gas, metals, and alloys. It is intended to publish at the rate of eight or ten series in each year, completing the work in four or five years. The following subjects are in the press:—Ship building, &c.; preparation of fuel and apparatus for its combustion; steam engines; weaving; photography; bricks and tiles; spinning. The abridgments are sold in the office at the cost of printing and paper.

The balance sheet of income and expenditure for the year 1860, was as follows:—The receipts were—Stamp duties in lieu of fees, 108,132*l.* 14*s.* 6*d.*; by sale of prints of specifications, indexes, &c., 1,439*l.* 4*s.*; surplus income on balance of accounts from the 1st October, 1852, to the end of the year 1859, 46,500*l.* 18*s.* 10*d.*: total, 156,072*l.* 17*s.* 4*d.* The payments were—Fees to the law officers of England, 8,820*l.*; their clerks, 801*l.* 15*s.*; salaries of the officers and clerks in the patent office, 6,459*l.*; compensations, 4,584*l.*; current and incidental expenses in the patent office, 5,024*l.* 12*s.* 4*d.*; cost of stationery supplied by her Majesty's stationery office, books for the free library, and binding, &c., 1,177*l.* 16*s.* 7*d.*; rent of offices, 520*l.*; Messrs. Eyre and Spottiswoode for printing specifications of patents, indexes, &c. and lithographer's bills for drawings accompanying specifications, 12,285*l.* 16*s.*; cost of paper supplied to the printer and lithographer by her Majesty's stationery office, 2,419*l.* 16*s.* 2*d.*; cost of coals and fuel, furniture and repairs, supplied to the patent office by her Majesty's office of works, 88*l.* 8*s.* 2*d.*; expenses incurred in respect of the museum at South Kensington, 1,134*l.* 16*s.* 6*d.*; salaries of officers and clerks for ditto, 517*l.* 10*s.*; revenue stamp duty account as below, 20,195*l.*; surplus income, 92,044*l.* 6*s.* 7*d.*: total, 156,072*l.* 17*s.* 4*d.*

During the year the following stamp duties were received under the Act to substitute stamp duties for fees (16 Vict. c. 5):—

	£	s.	d.
3,196 petitions for grant of letters patent, at 5 <i>l.</i> each	15,980	0	0
2,318 notices of intention to proceed with application, at 5 <i>l.</i> each	11,590	0	0
40 notices of objection to the grant of letters patent, at 2 <i>l.</i> each	80	0	0
2,065 warrants for patents, at 5 <i>l.</i> each	10,325	0	0
2,061 patents sealed, at 5 <i>l.</i> each	10,305	0	0
1,965 final specifications filed at 5 <i>l.</i> each	9,825	0	0
51 complete specifications filed at 5 <i>l.</i> each	255	0	0
606 entries of assignments of patents and licences, at 5 <i>s.</i> each	151	10	0
565 searches and inspections, at 1 <i>s.</i> each	28	5	0
11,157 folios of office copies of documents, at 2 <i>d.</i> per folio	92	19	6
583 patents upon which the progressive stamp duty of 50 <i>l.</i> has been paid	29,150	0	0
202 patents upon which the progressive stamp duty of 100 <i>l.</i> has been paid	20,200	0	0
11 duplicate patents issued in lieu of original patents lost or destroyed, 5 <i>l.</i> each	55	0	0
17 petitions on application for disclaimers, 5 <i>l.</i> each	85	0	0
5 caveats against disclaimers, at 2 <i>l.</i> each	10	0	0
	108,132	14	6

TELEGRAPH CABLES.

Report of the Joint Committee appointed by Lords of the Committee of Privy Council for Trade and the Atlantic Telegraph Company, to inquire into the Construction of Submarine Telegraph Cables.

THE committee consisted of Captain Douglas Galton, Professor C. Wheatstone, Dr. William Fairbairn, and Mr. George P. Bidder, on the part of the Board of Trade; and Mr. Edwin Clark, Mr. Cromwell F. Warley, Mr. Latimer Clark, and Mr. George Saward, on the part of the Atlantic Telegraph Company. The committee was appointed in 1859, and in 1861 they reported as follows:—

In compliance with the instructions given to us by your lordships to inquire into “the best form for the composition and outer covering of submarine telegraph cables,” we have the honour to inform you that we have made numerous experiments and received the evidence of gentlemen conversant with the subject, and we beg to lay before your lordships the following report.

In the first place, however, we must express to your lordships how great was the loss we experienced soon after the commencement of our inquiry by the death of Mr. Robert Stephenson; his philosophical mind, his high scientific attainments, and his great practical knowledge, peculiarly fitted him for directing an inquiry such as this, in which mechanical, chemical, and electrical science are combined; it was a subject, moreover, to which he had given considerable attention, and in which he took the greatest interest.

We have, however, had the benefit of his valuable assistance in originally devising the course of our proceedings, and in determining the general experiments which we deemed it necessary to make.

We propose to divide our report into three general heads, viz.:—I. A short account of the principal telegraph lines which have been laid. II. The construction and laying of submarine cables. III. A summary of principles which we consider should govern these undertakings in future.

I. AN ACCOUNT OF THE PRINCIPAL TELEGRAPH LINES WHICH HAVE BEEN LAID.

We have appended to this report a tabular statement, showing the principal submarine telegraph lines which have been laid. In 1840, Professor Wheatstone suggested to the Select Committee of the House of Commons on Railways the construction of a submarine telegraph between Dover and Calais, and subsequently further developed his plans; but the first efficient submarine telegraph which was actually laid was the line between Dover and Calais, projected by Mr. Brett, and completed in 1851. The following statement shows that at the present time 11,364 miles have been laid, but of these little over 3,000 miles are actually working.

The following is a list of these lines:—

Shallow Water Cables.—Black Sea, Varna to Constantinople, 172 statute miles, belonging to the Ottoman Government. Black Sea, Varna to Balaklava, 356 statute miles, belonging to the British Government. Corsica and Sardinia, 11 statute miles, belonging to the French Government. Dacca-Pegu, 116 statute miles, belonging to the Indian Government.

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[69]

Dover and Ostend, 80 statute miles; Dover and Calais (Grisnez), 25 statute miles; Folkestone and Boulogne, 24 statute miles; England and Hanover, 280 statute miles; England and Denmark, 350 statute miles;—belonging to the Submarine Telegraph Company. England to Holland, Orfordness, and Schevening (four lines), 119½ and 118½ statute miles; England to Holland, Mismeer to Zandvoort, 136 statute miles; Holyhead and Howth (1854), 73 statute miles; Holyhead and Howth (1854), 73 statute miles; Hurst Castle to Isle of Wight, 1 statute mile; Firth of Forth, 5 statute miles; River Tay, 1 statute mile;—belonging to the Electric and International Telegraph Company. Holyhead and Howth (1852), 73 statute miles, belonging to R. and S. Newall and Company. Portpatrick and Donaghadee, 25 statute miles; Portpatrick and Whitehead, 26 statute miles; Portpatrick and Whitehead (1852), 15 statute miles;—belonging to the British and Irish Magnetic Company. Liverpool to Holyhead, 25 statute miles, belonging to the Liverpool Dock Committee. Majorca to Minorca, 33 statute miles, belonging to the Spanish Government. Denmark, across the Belt, 18 statute miles; Denmark, Great Belt, 28 statute miles; Sweden to Denmark, 13 statute miles; Sweden to Gotland, 64 statute miles;—belonging to the Danish Government. Singapore to Batavia, 550 statute miles, belonging to the Dutch Government. Tasmania, Bass Straits, 240 statute miles, belonging to the Australian Government. Prince Edward's Island to New Brunswick, 12 statute miles. Whitehaven and Isle of Man, 36 statute miles, belonging to Isle of Man Electric Telegraph Company. Weymouth to Alderney, Guernsey, and Jersey, 93 statute miles, belonging to Channel Islands Telegraph Company. Total shallow water cables, 3,074 statute miles.

Deep Sea Cables.—Athens to Syra and Scio, 117 statute miles, belonging to the Greek Government. Atlantic, 2,200 statute miles, belonging to the Atlantic Telegraph Company. Barcelona to Mahon, 180 statute miles, belonging to the Spanish Government. Corfu and Otranto, 60 statute miles, belonging to the Mediterranean Extension Telegraph Company. Dardanelles to Scio and Candia, from Scio to Smyrna, 514 statute miles, belonging to the Levant Telegraph Company. Iviza to St. Antonia, 76 statute miles; Iviza to Majorca, 74 statute miles;—belonging to the Spanish Government. Newfoundland and Cape Breton, 85 statute miles. Red Sea: Suez-Cossire, 294 statute miles; Cossire-Suakin, 54½ statute miles; Suakin-Aden, 723 statute miles; Aden-Kooria Mooraa, 825 statute miles; Kooria Mooraa-Muscat, 559 statute miles; Muscat-Kurrachee, 553 statute miles;—belonging to the Red Sea and India Telegraph Company. Sardinia and Malta, and Malta and Corfu, 700 statute miles; Sicily and Malta, 70 statute miles;—belonging to the Mediterranean Extension Telegraph Company. Spezzia and Corsica, 110 statute miles; Sardinia and Bona (Cagliari to Galita), 125 statute miles; Toulon and Algiers, 480 statute miles;—belonging to the French Government. Total deep sea cables, 8,290 statute miles.

It will be perceived that of the lines, above 8,000 miles in length, which are not working, 6,949 miles belong to four undertakings only, viz.: the Atlantic, 2,200 miles; the Red Sea and India, 3,499 miles; the Sardinia, Malta and Corfu, 700 miles; and the Singapore and Batavia, 550 miles.

We have classed these lines under the respective heads of lines laid in shallow water and deep sea lines. Under the former we place all lines which are at such a depth as to be liable to injury from anchors of ships or

dredges, or from strong tidal currents; these may be assumed to be in depths down to about 100 fathoms. Deep sea lines are those which are out of reach of those dangers, in depths considerably beyond 100 fathoms.

The particulars of the condition of the several cables are shown in the tabular statement before mentioned, and we therefore propose only to allude to a small number of the cables.

Shallow Water Cables.

The line between Dover and Grisnez, laid in 1851 by the Submarine Telegraph Company, consisted of four copper conducting wires, each insulated with gutta-percha formed into a rope, covered with tarred hemp and protected with iron wires of No. 1 gauge. These wires were worked, with occasional injuries from anchors, till the spring of 1859, when extensive repairs were undertaken, in the course of which it was found that the gutta-percha covering of the copper wires was in as good order as when first laid, so complete had been the protection afforded by the tarred hemp and the immersion in water. The iron covering was, however, corroded in places, especially where it had lain on a bottom exposed to the action of moving water.

The Submarine Telegraph Company have four other lines between England and the Continent. One from Dover to Ostend, with six conducting wires, laid in 1853, very similar to the Dover and Grisnez cable. In the others, instead of the single copper wire for a conductor, a strand of four copper wires was introduced. Of these, one laid in 1858, between England and Hanover, is 280 miles long, containing two conducting copper strands, and weighing three tons per mile. The other two were laid in 1859—one, a very heavy cable, 24 miles in length, between Folkestone and Boulogne, weighing $9\frac{1}{2}$ tons per mile, and containing six conducting strands of copper wire, insulated with gutta-percha and Chatterton's compound, twisted into a rope, and served with tarred hemp, protected by iron wires of No. 0 gauge. The other is laid between England and Denmark, and is 350 miles long, weighing four tons per mile, and containing three conducting strands. The system of the Submarine Telegraph Company has thus been to place all the conducting wires they require for a particular route in one cable.

The lines between England and Holland laid by the International Telegraph Company are five in number. The shallow sea which separates the English coast from Holland is navigated by numerous craft, which renders the submarine lines peculiarly liable to damage from ships' anchors. The shallow water, however, on the other hand, renders the repair or renewal of the lines a matter of little difficulty. Instead of the plan of the Submarine Company of placing several conductors in one cable being adopted in the first four lines laid by the International Telegraph Company between Orfordness and the Hague, four single wires were laid in four separate light cables, weighing about two tons to the mile: the four cables were all united to a large and very heavy cable for a distance of three miles from each shore, where ships were thought more likely to drop their anchors. The core is a double-covered gutta-percha wire, wrapped with tape and yarn, and externally covered with No. 8 galvanized iron wires laid spirally. The first cable was laid in a gale of wind, but this cable, as well as the three others, were all successfully paid out, and, setting aside the constant damage from ships' anchors, have generally worked well. The iron wire

[71]

has, however, been seriously eaten away wherever it was exposed to moving water. It also rusts very fast in places where it rests in the mud on this side of the channel, but it has remained uninjured wherever it has been covered with the sand or silt at the bottom of the channel. The cables are sometimes found imbedded to great depths in the shingle on the English coast, and at other times entirely exposed. The lines were so frequently damaged, both accidentally, and occasionally wilfully, that their repair required the almost constant services of a vessel and crew, kept for the purpose; and therefore, to put an end to so serious an expenditure, a large cable with four conducting wires has been laid down in their stead. The Electric Telegraph Company, in laying these four cables, left the entire responsibility of the design, construction, and laying of the cables to their own officers, and employed their own vessel, the contractor supplying the cable, and laying it under their instructions.

The Channel Islands Telegraph is worthy of notice. This cable, which is 93 miles long, was laid from Portland to Alderney, Guernsey, and Jersey in August, 1858. It consists of a strand of copper wires, forming one conductor, covered with gutta-percha, and protected by iron wires, the weight being about $2\frac{1}{2}$ tons per mile. The depth is nowhere greater than 60 fathoms. The cable is laid across a rocky bottom, traversed by a rapid tide; but in parts there is sand and shingle. At the landing-place in Jersey the cable is laid among rocks, and the first accident took place there, in the month of February, 1859. The cable was not fixed to the rocks, and in a violent gale the waves caused it to strike repeatedly against the rocks, and broke it. A repetition of this injury was prevented by clamping the cable down to the rocks, by means of iron forks leaded into the rocks. The next accident occurred eight months after the laying of the cable, four miles from the island of Portland, where the tide, which runs at five and six miles an hour, had caused the cable to work upon a ridge of rock in 25 fathoms water, which had worn it through; in repairing this, the cable was taken up and relaid over shingle in another place. In other parts, where the iron covering of the cable was exposed, it became corroded, the rust which formed being continually washed away; in other places, when it rested on cement stone, the wire was decayed, and in some cases the cable sank into the cement stone; another cause of corrosion is stated to be the attachment of zoophytes and vegetation to the cable.

In one case the cable was so much abraded on rocks, that half the gutta-percha and three inches in length of copper wire was laid bare and worn away, leaving only an oxide of copper exposed to the water in the groove in which the copper had lain; and defective as this portion was, it is stated that weak currents could still be passed through the cable. Another fault appears to have occurred from lightning. A thunderstorm took place in Jersey, and the lightning is said to have struck the wire on the land; a portion passing into the office, and destroying the instruments; another portion passing out in the land wires and producing small punctures; the remainder travelling sixteen miles along the cable to within two miles of Guernsey, where it appears to have met with a weak place, and passed out into the water, producing a fault.

Further particulars of the other cables will be found in the evidence and Appendix No. 18, and we propose, therefore, only to allude to two others. One was laid between Singapore and Batavia, for the Dutch Government, which weighed 21 cwt. per mile, and is similar in construction to the Red

Sea cable, a cable which had been devised for a deep sea line. This line has failed, partly in consequence of injuries from anchors, and partly from corrosion of the outer covering, which was too weak for a shallow water cable.

The other was manufactured by Mr. Henley, and laid by the Tasmanian Government across Bass's Straits in 1859, in three sections, and weighed two tons per mile. One section has failed, and is to be replaced by a stronger cable. This section was abraded by the rocky bottom on which it was laid. On the same section a seaweed called kelp grows profusely, which, it is stated, enveloped and floated the cable in some places. The new line is proposed to be laid on a good sandy bottom, in an altered direction, which, had a careful preliminary survey been made, would have been selected at first, and would have prevented the failure which has occurred.

Deep Sea Cables.

We now pass to deep sea lines, and, amongst the first, notice the Atlantic Telegraph. In 1851, Mr. Tippet, of New York, and Mr. Frederick N. Gisborne, an English engineer, proposed to shorten the communication between America and Europe, by making St. John's, Newfoundland, a port of call for Atlantic steamers, and constructing a telegraph from thence to join the American lines. In 1851, they obtained an Act of the Legislature of Newfoundland, which gave them the necessary powers, and also conferred upon them certain exclusive privileges. These gentlemen were, however, unable to fulfil the terms of the Act, and they transferred their interest to a new company, chiefly promoted by Mr. Cyrus Field, Mr. Dudley Field, Mr. Peter Cooper, Mr. Chandler White, Mr. Moses Taylor, and Mr. Marshall O. Roberts, and called the New York, Newfoundland, and London Telegraph Company. This company obtained an Act of Incorporation in 1854, which conferred, amongst other privileges, the exclusive right of landing cables on the coasts of Newfoundland or on the islands or places within the jurisdiction of the Government of Newfoundland, for fifty years, and no limit was assigned to the time within which they were to exercise this right. In 1856, Mr. Cyrus Field, Sir Charles Bright, Mr. Brett, and Mr. Whitehouse entered into an arrangement with the New York, Newfoundland, and London Telegraph Company, by which the privilege of laying a submarine line between Europe and the coasts of Newfoundland and Labrador was transferred to them; but these privileges were to revert to the New York, Newfoundland, and London Telegraph Company if not exercised before 1862. These gentlemen formed the Atlantic Telegraph Company, and obtained a grant of 14,000*l.* per annum from the British Government, to be paid when and so long as the line was in working order, and the American Government gave a similar guarantee. Upon this, the provisional directors of the Company raised 350,000*l.*, in shares of 1,000*l.* each, and they undertook that the line should be laid in 1857. It was not until after this had been done that the permanent board of management was formed.

Some experiments upon forms of cable best suited to the purpose were made at Messrs. Glass and Elliot's works. The form selected was calculated to bear three tons. It consisted of a strand of seven copper wires, each No. 22½ gauge, weighing 93 pounds per mile, covered with three coats of gutta-percha, weighing 227 pounds per mile, served with thread

[73]

jute yarn, saturated with a composition of tar and other materials, and coated with eighteen strands of iron wire, each strand containing seven wires, each of No. 22 gauge; but it is to be regretted that there was no such thorough preliminary investigation as the importance of the subject demanded, because the undertaking given that it should be laid in 1857 did not afford the time necessary for such an inquiry. Mr. Whitehouse states that Mr. Cyrus Field objected to further experiments, because it would have put off the laying of the cable for twelve months, and other persons admit that additional experiments should have been made.

Messrs. Newall contracted for the manufacture of one-half of the cable, Messrs. Glass, Elliot, and Co. contracted for the other half; and the manufacture was commenced in February, 1857. Messrs. Glass, Elliot, and Co. had no covered works in which to stow it, and the summer being very hot, the cable was partially injured by the sun. A considerable variation in the conductivity of the copper wire was observed during the process of testing, and a standard for the conductivity of the copper was consequently adopted, but not till nearly the whole cable had been manufactured. The cable, 2,500 miles long, was finished in July, 1857.

The United States steamship *Niagara*, said to be a vessel of 5,000 tons, received the portion manufactured by Messrs. Newall, and her Majesty's ship *Agamemnon*, a vessel of 3,200 tons, received the portion made by Messrs. Glass and Elliot. The apparatus for the laying of the cable was scarcely complete when the ships arrived at Valentia. In the first expedition it was settled that the ships should proceed together from Valentia to Newfoundland; and as soon as one ship had paid out the cable on board, a joint was to be made with the portion on board the other ship; many objections were raised to this course, because it was evident that if the weather should happen to be bad when the joint was to be made, half the cable would be inevitably lost. The expedition left Valentia on the 7th August, 1857, and the cable continued to be successfully paid out until the 11th August, when it broke in 2,000 fathoms of water, after about 335 miles had been paid out. The dynamometer indicated a strain of 35 cwt. Upon one occasion, before this fracture occurred, the ship had been stopped, and the cable held by stoppers without being paid out; so that it was not the actual weight of the cable which broke it, but, as stated by Sir C. Bright, an omission to ease the break as the stern of the ship was raised by the waves. After this accident, the ships proceeded to Plymouth, and the cable was coiled into tanks on shore at Keyham. Upon examination, it was found that the cable was injured either by the coiling and uncoiling, or by the original exposure to heat; and several bad places were cut out where the copper wire had forced itself through the gutta-percha. The cable was tested at Keyham, and the leakage reported to be high. But as it was not placed in water for fear of corroding the outer wires, no very accurate data were obtained. In the numerous tests made at Keyham the cable was cut in several places, and it would appear that sufficient care was not always exercised in making good the joints afterwards.

In the spring of 1858 the cable was placed on board the ships, and after some preliminary experiments upon paying out and raising portions of the cable, in the Bay of Biscay, it was determined to commence to lay the cable from mid-ocean, between Ireland and America. Two unsuccessful attempts to lay the cable were made, and the vessels returned to Cork, but they started again on the 17th July and accomplished the successful laying

of the cable between Newfoundland and Valentia on the 5th August. The communication between the ships during the paying out was kept up by a prearranged series of signals, and doubts were entertained during the laying of the final success of the cable, from the serious faults which became apparent. On the first occasion a sudden cessation of the current was perceived, but the insulation was good, and after a time the currents came again as strong as before. This could only be accounted for on the supposition that the internal copper wire had broken from the strain, and that when the cable in which it was had reached the bottom the two ends had been brought together again by the elasticity of the sheath. A serious fault of insulation appeared in the cable at about 420 miles from the Irish coast, after which signals could be transmitted only by the use of Professor Thomson's very delicate marine galvanometer. Signals continued to be received, sometimes better, sometimes worse, from the 5th August till the 1st September, when they ceased to be intelligible. Attempts have subsequently been made to repair the cable, but the decay from rust of the outer covering, which, as before mentioned, consists of strands of very fine wires, has prevented the cable being raised without breaking. Mr. Varley in his evidence states that the speed with which words could be sent through this cable was little over one word of five letters per minute by relay; on Professor Thomson's galvanometer two words per minute were obtained.

We attribute the failure of this enterprise to the original design of the cable having been faulty owing to the absence of experimental data, to the manufacture having been conducted without proper supervision, and to the cable not having been handled, after manufacture, with sufficient care. We have had before us samples of the bad joints which existed in the cable before it was laid; and we cannot but observe that practical men ought to have known that the cable was defective, and to have been aware of the locality of the defects, before it was laid.

The next telegraph to which we come is the Red Sea and India Telegraph.

The Red Sea and India Telegraph Company was formed in 1857-58 upon certain concessions obtained by Mr. Lionel Gisborne from the Turkish Government, which authorized a line of telegraph to be carried across Egypt and down the Red Sea, thus giving the necessary powers for the construction of a line to India. These concessions give the company full control over the line, and permit through messages to be forwarded, either in cipher or otherwise, without being subject to examination on the part of the Turkish or Egyptian Governments. It also grants sufficient land for stations, and the necessary connecting land lines. Mr. Lionel Gisborne was the engineer, and Messrs. Newall and Co. contractors, for the projected line. In June, 1858, after two unsuccessful attempts to lay the Atlantic Telegraph had been made, and before the third and successful attempt, the Government gave an unconditional guarantee of $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. for fifty years upon the whole capital required for the construction of the Red Sea and India line, viz., 800,000*l.*, thus relieving the shareholders from risk in the matter; they appointed an official director, who had a general control over the proceedings of the company.

The cable consisted of a strand of seven copper wires, weighing 180 lbs. per nautical mile, covered with two coats of gutta-percha, alternated with two coats of Chatterton's compound, weighing 212 lbs. per nautical mile. This core was served with hemp yarn tarred, weighing $1\frac{1}{2}$ cwt. per nautical

[75]

mile, protected by iron wires weighing 16 cwt. per nautical mile. This cable had consequently the largest copper conductor and the best insulation of any cable made up to that date. The whole length of line is 3,043 nautical miles.

The first portion, between Suez and Aden, was finished on the 28th of May, 1859. It was laid in three sections, exclusive of the land line between Alexandria and Suez. The first section is from Suez to Cossire, 255 nautical miles in length; the second, Cossire to Suakin, 474 miles; the third, from Suakin to Aden, 629 miles in length. The portion of cable laid between Suakin and Aden tested much less perfectly before it was laid than the other two portions. The section from Suez to Cossire was in good order when laid. There was a fault on the Cossire-Suakin section, 135 miles from Suakin, when first laid, but not such as to prevent the line working, and for several months it did not get worse; the line has, however, since failed.

In February, 1860, the Aden-Suakin section failed, and it was found to have several faults; one appeared to be caused by the gutta-percha having been softened by heat, and the yarn having cut into it and bared the copper wire, and there appeared to be a defect caused by the flange of a drum having rolled over the core and cut into the copper wire, apparently before the core had been covered with yarn and wire. The company endeavoured to repair the section, and laid down for the purpose above 300 miles of new cable. The communication was restored in July. The section, however, failed again five days afterwards. The pieces brought up from this portion of cable showed numerous places where the wire covering was entirely corroded away. In other places the wires were as good as when first laid. In many places the cable was entirely covered with shells and weeds, and thus protected from corrosion. This section was laid very taut, and some of the injuries have been attributed to tight paying out, but the corrosion of the outer covering would to some extent account for the appearance of the pieces which have been brought up. Faults have also appeared in the Suez-Cossire section.

The second portion of line, between Aden and Kurrachee, was completed in February, 1860, but remained only for a short time in working order. A portion, of about seventy miles, is laid in depths of from 1,900 to 2,000 fathoms. The sections on this line are, from Aden to Hallain, 718 miles; from Hallain to Muscat, 486 miles; from Muscat to Kurrachee, 481 miles. The Aden-Hallain section has a fault, supposed to be about 230 miles from Aden. The Hallain-Muscat section is stated to be in good working order. The Muscat-Kurrachee section has a fault close to Kurrachee, supposed to be caused by injury to the shore-end from waves; but it would appear also to have other faults.

The company have had no means on the spot for the repair of this line, nor have they a staff competent to give the information required to enable the condition of the line to be ascertained with accuracy; but there can be no doubt that, with a moderate expenditure and proper appliances, it would be capable of being made some use of.

It appears that the contract provided that the cable should be maintained in working order for thirty days by the contractor, and that the several separate sections were worked for a longer period; but that the whole was not worked throughout for that period. The speed at which messages could be sent through the longest section, viz., from Aden to Hallain, is

stated by Mr. Forde to be about five words per minute; but we believe that, with proper appliances, the line would give a higher speed. We consider that the failure of this line is attributable to the cable having been designed without regard to the conditions of the climate or the character of the bottom of the sea over which it had to be laid, and to the insufficiency of the agreement with the contractor for securing effectual supervision during manufacture and control of the manner of laying. It is, moreover, to be regretted that the contract for laying this line was entered into without a full investigation into the question, considering that the success of the Atlantic cable was at the time very doubtful.

In addition to these lines, various submarine cables have been laid in the Mediterranean; of these we would specially notice the following:—

In 1854 the Mediterranean Extension Telegraph Company laid down, under concession from the French and Sardinian Governments, a submarine cable with six conducting wires, from Cape Santa Croce, Spezzia, to Cape Corse, in Corsica. From Cape Corse land wires were carried to Bonifacio; from Bonifacio a submarine cable of six conducting wires was laid to Santa Theresa, in the island of Sardinia, whence land wires were laid to Cagliari and Cape Spartivento. From Cape Spartivento a submarine cable was laid in 1855 to Bona in Algeria, a distance of 125 miles.

Mr. Brett made two unsuccessful attempts to lay the latter cable. The first attempt was made with a cable containing six conducting wires, and protected with strong iron wire; it weighed eight or nine tons per mile. The vessel in which it was stowed was a sailing vessel, towed whilst the cable was being laid by a steamer of small power. More slack was paid out than had been anticipated, and the cable broke during an attempt made to raise it by means of a windlass from deep water.

A cable with three conducting wires, weighing nearly four tons per mile, placed in a steamer, was next attempted to be laid, but it ran short from an error in the course of the ship. The depth at the place was about 400 fathoms, and the steamer held on to the cable for four or five days, whilst buoys and assistance were being fetched by another steamer which accompanied the expedition. Rough weather, however, came on, and the cable broke before the assistance arrived.

Messrs. Newall made the third attempt, and laid a cable with four conducting wires, which weighed three tons per mile. Of the four wires, one appears to have been defective at first, one to have been faulty, and the other two capable of working. This cable has since failed, and it is stated that three faults were found in it; one was apparently caused by corrosion, and another by coral dredgers, the third is in a depth of 1,200 fathoms, at about forty miles from the island of Sardinia. The outer covering of the cable was so little corroded that it was able to be picked up in this great depth until within about a mile from this fault; the cable then became very much corroded, and it broke in attempting to raise it, before the fault was reached. The tests appeared to show that the cable was actually broken in this depth, but the cause of this fracture could not unfortunately be ascertained. Marine animals and vegetation were found adhering to parts of the cable at the above-mentioned depths. A more careful selection of the route would have enabled the faults which occurred in shallow water to be avoided.

In 1857, the Mediterranean Extension Company, with a guarantee of interest from the English Government so long as the line remained in

working order, laid lines from Cagliari to Malta, and from Malta to Corfu. The line consisted of a strand of copper wires, forming one conductor, covered with gutta-percha, and protected by a serving of tarred yarn, covered with iron wires. The cable weighed 18 cwt. per mile. The line between Cagliari and Malta remained in good working order for twelve months, when a fault occurred. This fault was repaired, and the line worked again for several weeks, when it again failed in the same locality. An attempt was made to repair this second fault with an extra length of cable, and the cable was raised at some distance from the fault, and the new piece spliced in, but it proved insufficient to reach from the place at which the cable was raised to the fault. The line between Malta and Corfu is laid in depths extending to nearly 2,000 fathoms; it remained in good working order for about a year and three-quarters, and then failed suddenly. The exact position of this fault is not known; but it is assumed to be from twenty to forty miles from Corfu, and is reported as, continuity interrupted, but cable unbroken. The company have subsequently, in 1859, laid a line from Malta to Sicily, but in comparatively shallow water. This cable contains one stranded copper conductor covered with gutta-percha, served with tarred yarn, and protected by iron wires of No. 5½ gauge; it weighs three tons per mile. This line is in good working order.

Mr. Newall has laid lines between the Dardanelles, Syra, Candia, and Athens, and he has three times failed in attempting to lay a line from Candia to Alexandria, where the greatest depth is 1,750 fathoms. In one instance a hemp-covered cable was used and failed in laying; it was also found that the teredo had eaten through the hemp and indented the gutta-percha. Mr. Newall states that the hemp covering did not enable the cable to be raised from deep water. In the last attempt a portion of the Red Sea cable was used, and after the deepest water had been passed a failure occurred, supposed to arise from a bad joint.

Submarine telegraph lines have been also recently laid between Spain, Majorca, and Minorca, by the Spanish Government, manufactured by Mr. Henley, and the French Government have arranged for a direct line between Toulon and Algiers. This line has been manufactured by Messrs. Glass and Elliot. It consists of a strand of copper wire weighing 400 lbs. per mile, covered with four coats of gutta-percha alternated with four coats of Chatterton's compound, also weighing 400 lbs. per mile, served with tarred hemp, and protected by steel wires covered with hemp, to prevent their corrosion. The specific gravity of this cable being small, and its strength considerable, it was able to be picked up for some distance in 1,600 fathoms of water. The first attempt to lay it failed from a fracture due to the occurrence of a storm when the ship from which the line was being paid out was half-way across; the end was consequently taken into Majorca, and communication established between France and Algeria by way of Spain. A subsequent attempt to complete the line failed from a collision between the vessel sent to assist in laying and the vessel containing the cable.

It will be observed that the failures of all these submarine lines are attributable to defined causes, which might have been guarded against. It is possible that as our experience progresses other causes of failure besides those already ascertained may be discovered; but we believe that there are no difficulties to be encountered in laying submarine cables, and maintaining them when laid, which skill and prudence cannot and will not over-

come. Before passing to the next section of our report it will be interesting to describe briefly the arrangements which were made for the manufacture of the submarine cable originally intended to be laid from this country to Gibraltar, subsequently proposed for a line between Rangoon and Singapore, and now about to be laid between Malta and Alexandria.

The manufacture of the core of this cable was contracted for after the complete failure of the Atlantic cable and before the experiment of the Red Sea telegraph had been decided. The core consists of a strand of seven copper wires weighing 400 lbs. per nautical mile, covered with three coatings of gutta-percha alternated with three coatings of Chatterton's compound, also weighing 400 lbs. per nautical mile, to be equal in conductivity and insulation to a previously constructed standard mile. This core is served with hemp saturated in tar, and covered with eighteen No. 11 iron wires for the deep-water portion, the shore-ends being covered with No. 0 iron wires. The line as originally devised was to have been laid for 300 miles in depths of from 1,500 to 2,500 fathoms, and the covering for this portion was to have been of steel wires, each coated with hemp. When the Gibraltar line was abandoned, the steel and hemp covering was given up, and the iron wire covering was adopted for the whole cable. The core was manufactured at the Gutta-Percha Company's Works, and was tested in water in one of Reid's pressure tanks, up to a pressure of 600 lbs. per square inch, the air being exhausted from the tank before the water was turned in. This was the highest pressure to which the tank was adapted at the time; by recent arrangements, however, a much higher pressure can be obtained. The resistance and insulation of each mile of the cable were noted, and a careful system of comparative tests framed, which are to be carried on during laying, and after the cable has been laid, by which means the actual condition of the cable will be ascertained with great accuracy.

The outer covering was manufactured by Messrs. Glass and Elliot. The contract provided that the cable should be kept under water from the time of its manufacture until laid, and that the electrical tests during covering and laying, and afterwards, should be entirely conducted by electricians appointed by the Government or their engineer, to ensure that the comparative tests deemed indispensable should be properly made. The water tanks constructed at the contractors' works leaked very considerably; and in consequence of some misapprehension the ships to carry the cable were not originally fitted with water-tight tanks to hold the cable. The result was, that the cable, at the contractors' works, was alternately wet and dry, and liable to rust; the corrosion of the large surface of iron in the outer covering, coiled in a compact mass, occupying a small space, rapidly generated heat, which could only be kept down by pumping water over the cable, in the absence of any means of permanent submergence. As long as this water was at a low temperature, so as to prevent the heat in the cable rising to above 50° Fahrenheit, no great mischief could result, as oxidation would not progress rapidly; but when the temperature of the cable increased beyond that amount, the heating occurred in an accelerating ratio, reaching a mean of 86° Fahrenheit. This effect of wetting the iron covering of a cable had not previously been experienced, but it has a very important bearing on the selection of the form of outer covering of a cable. If the line had been laid in one length from Falmouth to Gibraltar, it was estimated that about five words per minute would have been passed through

it; if, however, it should be laid in three sections between Malta and Alexandria, the speed at which it can be worked would be materially increased.

II.—THE CONSTRUCTION AND LAYING OF SUBMARINE CABLES.

A submarine cable consists generally of some insulated conductor, strengthened and protected by other surrounding materials to preserve it from injury, as well during the process of submerging it as after it is laid at the bottom of the ocean.

The whole subject of submarine telegraphy may be yet said to be in its infancy, and all that has been done has been rather the result of bold though successful tentative processes than of the application of any well-ascertained data to the ends to be obtained. Under these circumstances the success which has attended many of these operations is a proof of the practical skill of the few talented individuals who have devoted their attention to the subject, and their advice and co-operation have been of the greatest value to the committee in directing attention to their requirements.

The early history of submarine telegraphy resembles, in a most striking manner, the progress of land telegraphs, in which, as the requirements have arisen, such remarkable progress has been made; and there is no reason to doubt but that a similarly successful result will ultimately attend this new branch of the subject.

The early telegraphs began within the limits of a railway station, and almost inseparable difficulties attended their construction for a distance of even twenty miles. A further extension necessitated an entire change in the whole process. The wires, covered with cotton saturated with a solution of caoutchouc, and laid in metal tubes, were entirely abandoned, and the open-air telegraph was adopted; but even with this improvement it was several years before it was found possible, even in fine weather, to work with certainty over a greater distance than a hundred miles. Whereas, so perfect has the system of insulation now become, that no difficulty is experienced in communicating directly and instantaneously between London and any part of Great Britain.

It was unreasonable to expect that the progress of submarine telegraphy should be in any degree more rapid, and we ought rather to be surprised at the gigantic strides it has already made, than to be disheartened by the difficulties that have been experienced in the undertakings that have been attempted. It is a remarkable fact, and, as regards the science of the subject, probably an unfortunate one, that complete success attended the laying of the first telegraph cables. They became successful precedents to appeal to; further investigation was thought unnecessary, and with no variation as regards the principles of construction, cable after cable was designed and laid down under circumstances and conditions having no resemblance to those originally encountered. The result was, however, far more encouraging than might have been expected. It is, indeed, doubtful whether the transmission of messages for even so short a period through such a cable across the whole width of the Atlantic be not a result worth all the expenditure that has been incurred.

Down to the date of our investigation, about fifty cables had been already laid down, and Appendix No. 18 contains a list of the cables, with the date of laying down, the particulars of the number of wires, the distance traversed, the company or government to whom they belong,

their present condition, and, in cases of failure, the causes of their failure, and the accidents to which they have been found liable.

In all these cables the same general principles prevail, viz.:—1. The central conductor is a copper wire or strand of wires. 2. The insulating covering is gutta-percha. 3. The external protection, when used, consists of hemp, or other fibrous material, impregnated with pitch or some other resinous substance, nearly in all cases covered with iron or steel wire, in the form of an ordinary twisted rope. 4. The cables so prepared have been paid out over the stern of ordinary vessels with a pressure break, to regulate the delivery according to the speed of the vessel, which has averaged from four to six knots per hour. It will be convenient to retain these subdivisions in detailing the results that have been arrived at, briefly stating under each head the state of the subject at the commencement of the investigation.

1. *The Conducting Wire.*

The material used for this purpose has in all cases been copper. Its durability and its high-conducting power render it peculiarly applicable to the purpose. It was originally used for land telegraphs, but its want of tensile strength, and especially its value to marauders, renders it inapplicable for open-air lines; and though it is a far better conductor than iron wire, the extra size necessary when iron is used, is rather an advantage than otherwise, when the exposed situation of such work is considered; the conducting power of pure copper is to that of iron as one to eight, so that a copper wire one-tenth inch diameter is equivalent as an electrical conductor to an iron wire nearly one-third inch diameter.

In the first telegraphs, the conductor consisted generally of a No. 16 copper wire. This size gave abundant area, and the resistances, even when used in lengths of several miles, were not found to interfere seriously with the working. The conducting power of copper wire was taken to be directly as the area; there were, however, no precise data for determining *à priori* the size of wire requisite for any given length of circuit and speed of transmission. The wire was joined by being carefully lapped and soldered at the joint, and wrapped with smaller binding wire, which was also soldered with silver solder. The utmost care was necessary in the construction of these joints, and a large number of faults originated in their imperfection, and, indeed, the joint was always much more brittle than the wire itself, and liable to fracture, and a break at any single joint destroyed the value of a whole cable. Moreover, copper could not be procured of homogeneous texture, and not only did hard and soft places occur, but defects, or the presence of foreign matter, frequently rendered the wire so weak that it ultimately parted after being covered, thus entirely destroying the circuit by the separation of the broken ends in the elastic material with which it was surrounded. In other cases, the defect, without causing fracture, reduced the area of the wire at these spots. It was also found that if a wire, covered with gutta-percha, be excessively stretched, the copper wire on contraction was apt to knuckle through the covering of gutta-percha, arising from the copper wire being capable of permanent extension, while the elastic covering of gutta-percha regained its original dimensions.

To remedy these frequent cases of fracture, bundles of smaller wires of similar area in the aggregate were adopted instead of a single copper wire.

[81]

When the conductor is thus formed of a number of wires, the joints in the several wires are distributed; and the fracture or defect of a single wire does not therefore vitiate the whole cable; but it is objected to this arrangement that on the failure of any single wire the sharp fine broken end is liable to start out through the gutta-percha, and then come into contact with the outer covering, or the water or damp earth on which the cable is laid, a defect not easily detected, and which can only be guarded against by close examination of the strand itself, and by the constant testing of the gutta-percha covering of the wire during its manufacture. It is also evident that in the form of a strand the bulk of the conductor is greater than with a single wire, and more gutta-percha is required to obtain the same thickness of covering.

Want of solidity is urged as an objection to the strand form of conductor, *i. e.*, it is alleged that if water penetrates in any place to the wire it will pass along the wire as in a tube; the Gutta-Percha Company propose to remove this objection by coating the central wire of the strand with Chatterton's compound, and bedding the six outer wires in it in the process of twisting. The compound, which passes out between the interstices of the wires, becomes firmly united to the first coating of insulating material, and the whole is so solid that a few inches of this strand will prevent the percolation of water at a pressure of 600 lbs. per square inch. Mr. Daft proposes to obtain the same object by bedding copper wires coated with brass in vulcanized india-rubber. Mr. Clark has proposed to obtain this solidity by making the conductor in the shape of a solid wire, divided into three or four sections longitudinally, fitting closely to each other. Mr. Newall unites the several wires of a strand with solder.

To prevent the injury to one wire of a strand conductor from damaging the whole conducting capacity of the cable, Mr. Varley proposes to insulate separately what would otherwise be the several wires of a strand conductor, and to unite them at intervals and use them as one conductor. For instance, assume that the cable's conductor has three conducting wires, each surrounded with gutta-percha; these three would be connected together at frequent intervals as follows:—First, Nos. 1 and 2 would be connected together by soldering or otherwise; a little further on Nos. 2 and 3 would be connected, and further on still Nos. 1 and 3 are so joined, and so on, the different metallic junctions breaking joint, and no two of them being in the same spot. Excepting at these junctions, the separate conducting wires would be isolated from each other. Now, if the insulating covering were damaged, water would enter, and the wire become defective, strong positive currents could be applied to the cable, which would eat away the conductor till its exposed ends retire inside the insulating envelope, these parts would then offer so much resistance that the line would be workable again. Thus a cable may be injured in several different places and yet be made available.

In the first telegraph wire that was made, the strength and toughness of the gutta-percha was increased by combining it with sulphur, and this was thought to increase also its insulating properties; but the sulphur was found to act seriously on the copper, a sulphuret being formed at the expense of the copper. In the use of this wire it was discovered that, in cases where the wire had parted in the interior of the sulphurized gutta-percha, and the two ends had become slightly separated, the resistance offered by the lining of sulphuret of copper, produced on the passage of

a galvanic current sufficient increase of temperature to ignite the gutta-percha, and actually burst out into flame. So certain was this action, that charges of gunpowder were specially prepared by this means for submarine explosions and other such purposes; and this method possesses very important advantages from the smaller area of conducting wire that is necessary in comparison with the area requisite for the distant ignition of platinum for such purposes.

Professor Thomson and other experimenters have shown that the quality of the copper exercises an important influence on the conducting power of copper wire; but this question had not been fully developed when we commenced our inquiries; we consequently committed to Dr. Matthiessen the task of elucidating this question further.

We may observe, in the first place, that if the conducting power of silver be assumed at 100, that of copper would be 90, aluminium 34, and iron 13.

The following is a summary of the results arrived at by Dr. Matthiessen:—

TABLE showing the Effect of Admixture of COPPER with Specific Quantities of various Substances.

Substances alloyed with pure Copper.	Conducting Power of Alloy, pure Copper being 100.	Temperature Centigrade.
Carbon:—Copper, with .05 per cent. of carbon ...	77.87	18.3
Sulphur:—Copper, with 0.18 per cent. of sulphur ...	92.08	19.4
Phosphorus:—Copper, with .13 per cent. of phosphorus ...	70.34	20.0
" " " .95 " " ...	24.16	22.1
" " " 2.5 " " ...	7.52	17.5
Arsenic:—Copper, with traces of arsenic ...	60.08	19.7
" " " 2.8 per cent. of arsenic ...	13.66	19.3
" " " 5.4 " " ...	6.42	16.8
Zinc:—Copper, with traces of zinc ...	88.41	19.0
" " " 1.6 per cent. of zinc ...	79.37	16.8
" " " 3.2 " " ...	59.23	10.3
Iron:—Copper, with .48 per cent. of iron ...	35.92	11.2
" " " 1.06 " " ...	28.01	13.1
Tin:—Copper, with 1.33 per cent. of tin ...	50.44	16.8
" " " 2.52 " " ...	33.93	17.1
" " " 4.9 " " ...	20.24	14.4
Silver:—Copper, with 1.22 per cent. of silver ...	90.34	20.7
" " " 2.45 " " ...	82.52	19.7
Gold:—Copper, with 3.5 per cent. of gold ...	67.94	18.1
Aluminium:—Copper, with 10 per cent. of aluminium ...	12.68	14.0

The addition of a small quantity of lead or of tin (0.1 per cent.) to copper containing suboxide obtains a purer metal, and, consequently, improves its conducting power.

These differences of conducting power are caused by the impurities present in the specimens; the suboxide of copper appears to be most injurious, the conducting power of the copper being diminished by it in one case as much as 28 per cent.; but there is no known accurate method of determining quantitatively the suboxide, and consequently the actual amount present in the specimen in question was not ascertained.

It is scarcely possible to obtain perfectly pure copper, and there is no substance which, added to pure copper, increases its conducting power; but it is of the utmost importance that the purest and best conducting copper should be used in submarine cables. The best way of ensuring this is by contracting for wire of a specified resistance per knot, because then what the copper wants in quality must be made up in quantity. It is, however, preferable, to employ pure copper, because impure copper of such

a diameter as to have the same conducting capacity, would give rise to greater induction.

The following table shows the conducting power of certain commercial coppers:—

Quality of Copper.	Conducting Power.	Temperature Centigrade.	Cause of Diminution of Conducting Power.
Pure copper	100 mean	15°5	
Specimen furnished by Mr. Tenant, cut from a piece 1½ tons in weight	98·78	15·5	Traces of silver. No suboxide of copper.
American (Lake Superior)	92·57	15	Traces of iron, silver (·03 per cent.) and suboxide of copper.
Australian (Burra Burra)	88·86	14	Traces of iron and suboxide of copper.
Best selected	81·35	14·2	Traces of iron, nickel, antimony, suboxide of copper, &c.
Bright copper wire	72·22	15·7	Traces of lead, iron, nickel, suboxide of copper, &c.
Tough copper	71·03	17·3	Traces of lead, iron, nickel, antimony, suboxide of copper, &c.
Russian (Demidoff)	59·34	12·7	Traces of arsenic, iron, nickel, suboxide of copper, &c. The arsenic present may be considered the chief reason of the low conducting power.
Spanish (Rio Tinto)	14·24	14·8	2 per cent. arsenic; traces of lead, iron, nickel, suboxide of copper, &c. The low conducting power is to be attributed to the arsenic present.
Gibraltar Core:—			
Specimen No. 112	90·7	15·5	} Traces of lead, suboxide of copper, iron, and antimony.
" 91	89·5	15·5	
" 292	78·2	15·5	} Traces of lead, arsenic (very small), iron, nickel, antimony, and suboxide of copper.
" 240	74·4	15·5	

It appears from this table that Rio Tinto copper possesses no better conducting power than iron.

The specific resistance of copper and other metals to the galvanic current varies with the temperature of the conductor. In the contract for a telegraph cable, a wire affording a standard of resistance at a specified temperature should therefore be furnished. The resistance at different temperatures will vary with the quality of the metal; and copper is not a good metal for such a standard, because it oxidizes easily and its conductivity varies so rapidly with temperature. The standard should be such that—1. Its resistance will remain the same, whether it be made of absolutely pure or commercially pure metals; in other words, that such an alloy may be made by any chemist or assayer, and its conducting power will always be the same. 2. That its conducting power will not be altered by the process of annealing. 3. That its conducting power will not vary much with an increase or decrease of temperature. 4. That the alloy will not alter by exposure to the atmosphere.

Mr. Varley uses for a standard iron wire boiled in oil and enclosed in a soft cement. Messrs. Siemens employ German silver for the purpose, which they compare with their mercury standard at zero centigrade. Dr. Mattheissen, whose experiments are published in the *Philosophical Magazine* for February, 1861, considers that the alloy best adapted for a standard of resistance for this purpose is composed of two parts by weight of gold, one

part by weight of silver; and he states that the variation in the conducting power of various specimens of this alloy, made by different persons and in different places, was very small.

With respect to the effect of temperature on this alloy, and on copper and other metals generally, Dr. Matthiessen observes that when a hard-drawn wire is heated to 100° , a different conducting power is generally found on cooling; and to obtain concordant results it is necessary to heat the wire several times; but, when once obtained, the values found will remain the same, no matter how often the wire may be heated. Whether by letting the wire remain for a length of time it will gradually assume its original conducting power or not, is a question not yet decided. With annealed wires the same effect takes place, but in a much less degree.

The following table shows the differences in the conducting powers of some metals as compared with that of the alloy, between 0° and 100° , taking the conducting power at $0^{\circ} = 100^{\circ}$:—

Silver	28.5 per cent. (annealed).
Copper	29.0 per cent. (annealed).
Gold	28.0 per cent. (annealed).
Mercury	8.7 per cent. (Siemens).
The gold-silver alloy	6.5 per cent. (hard drawn).
"	6.7 per cent. (annealed).
German silver"	3.8 per cent. (Siemens).

It would thus appear that, so far as variation of temperature is concerned, the alloys are better adapted for a standard of resistance than the other metals mentioned.* Moreover, they do not suffer much from exposure to the atmosphere.

With regard to the expense of the gold-silver alloy, the nine grammes alloy cost, drawn into wire, about 1*l.* 4*s.*, but the gold in it is always worth about 15*s.*; so that the real expense is very small. Care must, of course, be taken to prevent contact with mercury. The best way to prevent any such accidents is to varnish the wires. In having these alloys made, it would be advisable always to have two specimens made by different parties, so as to avoid chances of error.†

It will be seen that the experiments above mentioned have cleared the question of the conducting power of copper wire, whether as regards its purity or its area, of all uncertainty, and that the size of a conducting wire necessary to fulfil any given conditions can in future be determined with absolute precision.

In these experiments new methods of testing and new instruments have

* Dr. Matthiessen states that he has found, whilst making these experiments, that as soon as most of the pure metals are alloyed with traces of any other metal, the differences from temperature rapidly decrease—in fact, almost in the same proportion as the conducting power of the metals themselves. Dr. Matthiessen has tested a commercial copper wire, whose conducting power only varied 7 per cent. between 0° and 100° , whilst pure copper varies 29 per cent. Now, suppose a wire of that copper, whose conducting power only varies 7 per cent. between 0° and 100° , be compared with a standard at a certain temperature, and then with a pure copper wire at another temperature, say 20° difference, it is obvious that the pure copper wire will not have the same resistance as the original standard. It has as yet been generally assumed that the conducting power of all copper wire, whether pure or commercial, varies with an increase of temperature to the same degree, which, however, is far from true, and should be borne in mind when constructing a resistance thermometer, as proposed by Messrs. Siemens. (*Phil. Mag.*, Jan., 1861.)

† Dr. Matthiessen proposes that all those who study the electrical resistance of metals should compare one of their metals with this alloy, calling its conducting power 100 at 0° (hard-drawn wire of one millim. length and one millim. diameter), for then we should be able to compare the results obtained by different experimenters with one another.

been employed, which are fully described, and which cannot fail to prove of the highest scientific interest to the theoretical philosopher and to the practical electrician.

2. *The Insulating Covering.*

The first land telegraphs that were constructed were in every respect analogous to submarine cables, and the wires were indeed frequently laid across rivers and canals beneath the water.

In the earlier experiments, which were confined to buildings or sheltered positions, the copper wires were insulated by a covering of cotton or silk laid spirally over the wire; the cotton was subsequently steeped in some resinous substance to protect it from damp, and ultimately the wires so prepared were immersed in a body of pitch or resin, and laid in wooden troughs or iron pipes. As many as ten wires were thus laid along the Blackwall Railway in a wrought-iron gas pipe, two inches in diameter. In such pipes the wires were carried under ground or water.

It was, however, found almost impossible to maintain sufficient insulation by such means. In some places water penetrated through the pipe, in others the sun damaged the resin, and generally the resinous substance used gradually decomposed or absorbed moisture. There are, however, still working in the Primrose Hill tunnel nine wires insulated by means of cotton and pitchy compounds enclosed in a lead tube, which have been down for fourteen years. Moreover, although the utmost care was devoted to the subject, it was found impracticable to lay down any great length without serious faults occurring in the construction, and the system was hopelessly abandoned and entirely superseded by the open-air wires. Covered wires, however, were indispensable for leading into stations, under bridges, and especially through tunnels, where the constant humidity prevented the use of open wires, consequently the greatest difficulty that has had to be overcome with the overland lines has been the passage through long tunnels, and to this difficulty submarine telegraphy is deeply indebted for the progress it has made. It was in overcoming this obstacle that india-rubber was first successfully employed, and it is remarkable, that the first really efficient insulating substance that was used should, after falling entirely into disuse, be now again brought forward.

As in the case of copper for the conductor, so india-rubber or caoutchouc appeared almost specially intended for the purpose of insulation. This substance possesses insulating qualities of the highest order. It is tough, highly elastic, of less specific gravity than water, easily manipulated, extremely durable under water, nearly impervious to moisture, except superficially, and not excessively costly, and it appeared on its first introduction as though nothing further could be desired. One of the first and most important requirements in any insulating substance that may be adopted is that it should offer facilities for making the numerous joints required, either for the repair of lines when laid down or in their first construction. For this purpose india-rubber appeared also well adapted. If *instantly* after being cut, two surfaces of this material are again brought into contact, they unite almost as perfectly as though no separation had taken place; moreover, being soluble in naphtha with a slight increase of temperature, two surfaces may be hermetically united by warming them and slightly moistening them with this material. The copper wire, previously covered with cotton and shellac, was covered by a thin strip

of masticated india-rubber wound spirally on the wire, each turn overlapping the last, and several coatings were thus put on the wire, the union of the india-rubber being secured by slightly moistening it with naphtha. A degree of insulation infinitely superior to anything that had been before obtained was the first result, and the problem on which so much time and money had been expended seemed to be definitely and perfectly solved, and the new material came into rapid use. It required, however, but a very short experience to dispel all the hopes that had been raised. This gum resin, like all others of a similar character, slowly burns or oxidises even in contact with the air only, and in the dark; but in the light, and especially where exposed openly to the weather and the sunlight, the oxidation goes on with fatal rapidity; the wires hung out of doors soon became useless; the oxidised gum assumes a thick gummy character, and soon falls away from the wire. The union made with naphtha was found not to be durable; and after a short time, even in unexposed situations, the rubber was found loose upon the wire. Attempts were made to preserve it by enclosing it in grooved boards, and thus protecting it from the air, but this in dry situations was found to be of but little avail; and though in wet tunnels it was found to be more durable, yet here also it was ultimately abandoned. In other cases, the india-rubber assumed a liquid form from decomposition, and simply left the wire by flowing away from it.

To avoid these difficulties, gutta-percha was proposed. Gutta-percha is, when perfectly pure and at moderate temperatures, a remarkably good insulator, and capable of being kneaded and drawn solidly on the wire through dies, which avoids the joint which is necessary with india-rubber laid on in strips.

Some difficulties, however, rendered its first introduction not so successful as that of india-rubber. In the first attempts, the covering, which was single only, was not efficiently put on, and contained air holes and other defects. This was partly due to imperfections in the manufacture, but more particularly to the bad quality of the gum itself, which comes to this country mixed with a very large proportion of impurities, so large, indeed, that but a very small percentage of the gum imported is fit for the manufacture of covered wire at all. In addition to the impurities already existing, fine sawdust and ground wood were mixed with the gum. It was also combined with sulphur, with the bad result already detailed under our last head. It was also found liable to oxidation when exposed, though this appeared to be avoided by covering it with Stockholm tar and immersing it in water, or otherwise protecting it from the air; it is not liable to assume the liquid form, but the making of an efficient joint offered several difficulties, as it was absolutely necessary for this purpose to remelt the material. These joints gave rise originally to a great number of faults, which, together with the general impurity of the gum itself and the imperfect manufacture, were the principal drawbacks to the more rapid introduction of gutta-percha. Gutta-percha, even moderately pure, however, has many advantages, and fell into hands far too enterprising and persevering to be rapidly abandoned. The manufacturers devoted themselves to the perfection of their machinery, sorted the gum with the most elaborate care, and soon produced a tolerably pure material. Improved methods of making the joints were introduced, fine ribbons of thin gutta-percha being used instead of kneading over the joint with a mass of

material; and above all, the system was introduced of covering the copper wire with several independent layers of thin material, instead of one thick layer; the occurrence of air holes or defects from minute fibres left in the material were thus to a great extent obviated. The greatest care was, moreover, bestowed at the manufactory itself on the testing of the wire during the process of manufacture. Coincident with these improvements in manufacture, the telegraph companies endeavoured to protect the material from oxidation by covering the wires with tape and Stockholm tar, and enclosing them in wooden grooves, or covering them with yarn and tar, and laying them in underground pipes, the material being thus found to be tolerably durable, especially when immersed in water. In all cases, however, where these precautions were not taken, the wires rapidly became useless, and many hundreds of miles have thus been abandoned, while, on the other hand, with these precautions many lines which have been some years in use are still in good working order. It is, however, only since the commencement of our inquiry that the perfectly pure material has been produced in sufficient quantity to be practically useful; and that the high insulating properties of the gum in its pure state have been appreciated.

Professor Hofmann appears to have been the first to point out the cause of the decay of gutta-percha and india-rubber; and at the commencement of our inquiry we requested Professor Miller to undertake the chemical investigation of this question. It appears that pure gutta-percha is a hydro-carbon, containing of—Carbon, 88·96; hydrogen, 11·04: total, 100·00. The gutta-percha of commerce is mixed with resin, vegetable fibre, moisture, &c.; the moisture is mechanically diffused through the mass, influencing its pliability and toughness. Commercial gutta-percha will remain unchanged for months in air, provided light be excluded, and provided the temperature be not raised very high, and it will remain unaltered for years in water, especially when coated with Stockholm tar, and when light is excluded. Alternate exposure to moisture and dryness, on the other hand, particularly if the sun's light has access to it, is rapidly destructive of gutta-percha. All the deteriorated portions of gutta-percha examined by Professor Miller were found to have undergone change from oxidation. The evidence we have taken shows that it has occasionally been injured in the sea by animals.

Caoutchouc consists of a hydro-carbon of definite composition, mixed with a small quantity of resin. It is liable to deterioration by exposure to the action of oxygen in the presence of solar light, but the gum is less rapidly injured if exposed to these influences in the native state than if it has been previously masticated. When subjected to the action of air excluded from light it does not experience any marked change even during very long periods. Further particulars will be found in Professor Miller's report.

We have made numerous experiments upon the effect of temperature and hydrostatic pressure on both gutta-percha and caoutchouc. Such experiments occupy a very considerable time, and are otherwise difficult to perform. The general results appear to be that temperature has a very marked effect on gutta-percha, but that pressure appears to consolidate the material and improve the insulation of both gutta-percha and india-rubber.

The results of experiments on the effect of temperature on the insulation of several insulating substances were as follows:—With gutta-percha in

ordinary use for submarine cables, the insulation at 72° was not one-half as good, and at 92° not one-fourth as good as it was at 52° ; and at 52° it was not one-third as good as at 32° . Perfectly pure gutta-percha was a far superior insulator, and suffered little loss of insulation until it attained a temperature of between 72° and 92° . India-rubber and Wray's compound, which are very far superior as insulators to the gutta-percha which has been ordinarily in use, exhibit very little loss of insulating power until they attain temperatures far above 92° .

The experiments in a very high temperature showed that whilst india-rubber withstood a temperature of 200° and Wray's compound a temperature of 152° , gutta-percha covered wire was entirely spoiled at a temperature a little over 122° . At a temperature of from 90° to 100° Fahrenheit gutta-percha will not change its shape; but at higher temperatures a conducting wire covered uniformly with gutta-percha will easily become excentric by the mere process of coiling. Gutta-percha covered wire should in no case be exposed to heat, the exact amount of which cannot be defined and regulated. This material is therefore not a desirable one for cables which have to be conveyed through or laid in the tropics, unless means be found for ensuring that the cable be maintained at a low temperature.

When immersed gutta-percha, india-rubber, Wray's compound, and Chatterton's compound absorb a portion of water. Professor Miller's experiments, in which gutta-percha and india-rubber were subjected to pressure of three tons per square inch for a period of six weeks, show that the absorption of water by gutta-percha is very slight, almost *nil*, in sea water. In fresh water it is appreciable, but trifling. The absorption of water by caoutchouc is always sensible, the surface being rendered white and opaque, owing to the amount of water that has penetrated into the substance. The absorption, however, only reaches to a small depth, and does not destroy or in any way impair the insulating power of that portion of the caoutchouc which is beneath the moistened layer. The white aspect disappears as the substance is allowed to dry. The amount of absorption is dependent upon the extent of surface exposed to the water. The insulation of the specimens of gutta-percha and of masticated india-rubber, experimented upon by Professor Miller, was in no way impaired by immersion under pressure, but the results with virgin india-rubber were not equally satisfactory. Messrs. Siemens' experiments on the immersion in water of gutta-percha, india-rubber, and Wray's compound, give the following results:—

The materials examined absorb water more rapidly from pure water than from sea water, and more rapidly from sea water than from concentrated brine. In gutta-percha this difference is very decided, the absorption being about three times as great in sea water, and five times as great in pure water as in brine. Caoutchouc absorbs water somewhat less rapidly than gutta-percha at 39° Fahrenheit, which may be taken for the temperature of the deep sea. Wray's mixture absorbs at the same rate from sea water as from pure water, that rate being nearly equal to that of gutta-percha, at the lower temperature of 39° Fahrenheit.

Increase of temperature affects the rate of absorption by gutta-percha moderately with sea-water, that rate being little more than doubled for an increase from 39° to 120° Fahrenheit. In pure water, the absorption at an increased temperature is greater. Caoutchouc absorbs from brine at about

[89]

the same rate at 39° and at 120° Fahrenheit. From sea water it absorbs at double the rate at 120°, and in pure water the rate of absorption is as much as eight times greater at 120° than at 39° Fahrenheit. With Wray's mixture, the rate of absorption from sea water is not materially influenced by temperature; but in pure water the rate of absorption increases in a very extraordinary ratio with increase of temperature, being about 16 times greater at 120° than at 39° Fahrenheit. Both caoutchouc and Wray's mixture change colour and lose firmness when exposed for many days to pure water of 120° Fahrenheit.

The thickness of the sheets of material employed affects the absorption in a much higher ratio than can be accounted for by the simple increase of surface. The absorption of water by the thicker sheets appears to stop short at a limit which is rapidly exceeded by the thin sheets. The conductivity of these materials appears not to be materially affected by the absorption of two or three per cent. of water, which may be taken for a limit that will not be exceeded in sea water and at ordinary temperatures.

Increase of pressure within the limits of 50 lbs. per square inch does not affect the rate of absorption materially. The rate is somewhat higher under a vacuum, owing probably to the absence of condensed air upon the surface.

Mr. Fairbairn made some experiments at Manchester under a pressure of 20,000 lbs. per square inch, equivalent to a depth of 8·72 miles. At that pressure a sheet of gutta-percha one-sixteenth of an inch thick absorbed ·05 per cent. of its weight of pure water, after an exposure of 65 hours. A further exposure of 23 hours did not produce any further absorption. A pressure of 5,900 lbs. per square inch, continued for a period of 450 hours, on a sheet of gutta-percha one-sixteenth of an inch thick, produced an absorption of ·2 per cent. of pure water; whilst, with a piece of gutta-percha one inch thick, the absorption in a similar period was only ·08 per cent. Mr. Fairbairn's experiments also included trials of the absorption of india-rubber, Chatterton's compound, Wray's mixture, and other substances. As regards the effect of temperature the absorption with a pressure of 20,000 lbs. per square inch was for gutta-percha six times as much at a temperature of 75° as at a temperature of 45°, for india-rubber two and a half times as much, and for Wray's compound seven times as much.

Mr. Fairbairn found that in pressures of 20,000 lbs. per square inch, the insulation was improved by consolidation, and that the bulk of the material was reduced.

We submitted wires covered with gutta-percha, india-rubber, and Wray's compound, 110 yards in length, to pressure of three tons to the square inch for periods of a month. The wires were placed in iron pipes connected with an hydraulic press, by means of which the pressure was continually maintained. We had intended to obtain higher pressure, but we experienced so many failures in the attempt that we were at last obliged to give up the endeavour. An examination of the tables will show that, except where specific faults occur, either from joints or from the pressure of the wire against the connections in the pipes, the condition of the wire after the pressure was put on remained strictly uniform, the loss of insulation following very closely the temperature of the water in which the specimen wire was immersed.

The general conclusion at which we have arrived, from a careful consideration of these and other experiments, is, that the absorption of water

by these substances is not to be feared as a case of deterioration ; and that pressure improves the insulation, whilst it is being applied, its effect being more obvious as the material is a worse insulator ; and there appears to be less difference in india-rubber when subjected and not subjected to pressure than in any other of the materials experimented on.

When the first submarine telegraphs were laid the size of the conducting wire or the thickness of the insulating material had not become prominent matters of inquiry. Some retardation of the electric currents in underground work had been observed ; but in the first short submarine lines but little practical inconvenience resulted, and it was not until lines of considerable length had been laid down, that the subject of induction excited much attention.

It was early seen that the inductive action must be in some ratio proportionate to the thickness of the insulating medium, but the actual value of this ratio was unknown ; the thickness of the gutta-percha was accordingly increased with the feeling that some increase was necessary, but no real grounds existed for determining what that increase should be, nor were any clear notions entertained of the precise action of induction in causing the retardation observed. In 1854, Mr. L. Clark brought under the notice of Professor Faraday certain experimental results he had obtained in telegraph lines between London and Manchester, and Professor Faraday explained before the Royal Institution the general principles which govern these effects.

When a metallic wire is enveloped by a coating of some insulating substance, as gutta-percha or india-rubber, and is then surrounded by water or damp earth, the system becomes exactly analogous to a Leyden jar or coated pane ; the insulating covering represents the glass, the copper wire the inner metallic coating, and the water or moist earth the external coating. The electricity with which the wire is charged, by bringing the pole of an active battery in contact with it, acts by induction on the opposite electricity of the surrounding medium, which in its turn reacts on the electricity of the wire, drawing more from the source, and a considerable accumulation is thereby occasioned, which is greater in proportion to the thinness of the insulating covering.

One mile of copper wire, one-sixteenth of an inch in diameter, presents a surface of 85·95 square feet, and the inductive circumstances being assumed to be the same, receives the same charge from a source of the same tension as a Leyden jar having an equal capacity. There is, however, one material difference between the two cases. Though both are discharged in a time inappreciably minute to the senses, the discharge from the wire occupies a comparatively much longer interval than that from the coatings of the jar. A wire on insulating supports, in the open air, when it is unconnected with the earth, receives also a charge, but very much smaller in amount, the inductive action of distant surrounding bodies exerting but little influence upon it.

Although certain general conditions of this inductive action in telegraphic wires had been made the subject of experiment, and were well known, when we commenced our inquiry, the knowledge of the subject still remained limited. It was therefore thought desirable that a series of experiments should be instituted, under circumstances as closely resembling those which take place in actual telegraphic lines as possible, in order to determine the amount of inductive discharge in wires of very considerable lengths, according to variations in the lengths of the wires, their diameters, the

[91]

material and thickness of the insulating substance, and in the temperature and pressure of the medium by which they are surrounded.

The results of these experiments may be briefly summed up as follows:—

1. The amount of discharge of a battery is proportionate to the electromotive force or tension of the battery. 2. The discharge is directly as the length of the wire. 3. When a discharge is effected simultaneously from a number of wires united at their discharging ends, the effect on a galvanometer is the same as when the wires are all united together to form one continuous length. 4. The conductivity of the metal, other circumstances being the same, does not influence the amount of the discharge. Hence by employing a bad conductor the resistance of the circuit is increased, the induction remaining the same. 5. The theoretical formula given by Professor Thomson in his evidence for the electro-static capacity of an insulated wire is as follows, viz.: If D denotes the diameter of a copper wire of circular section, symmetrically covered with insulating material to a diameter D^1 , and I denotes the specific inductive capacity of the insulator, and $\log.$ denotes the Napierian logarithm of the number to which it is prefixed, the expression for the electro-static capacity of an unit length of conductor thus insulated, when the outside of the insulator is kept in com-

munication with the earth, is $\frac{I}{2 \log. \frac{D^1}{D}}$, and this is assumed by many experienced experimentalists correctly to represent the phenomena. It appears from the experiments above mentioned that the amount of discharge from wires of different diameters with coverings of various thicknesses of the same insulating material may be assumed to be, for practical purposes, directly as the square root of the semi-diameter of the wire, and inversely as the square root of the thickness of the insulating envelope.

Hence by increasing the diameter of the wire and the thickness of insulating covering, in the same proportion, the amount of inductive discharge remains the same. The force of the current in a voltaic circuit increases as the square of the diameter of the wire (the length of circuit being constant and the resistance of the battery being inconsiderable as compared with that of the metallic portion of the circuit), consequently if it be found inconvenient to increase the wire and the insulating covering proportionately, greater advantage will be obtained by increasing the diameter of the wire than the thickness of insulating covering, for whilst the covering remains the same the induction discharge increases only as the square root of the diameter of the wire, whilst the force of the current increases as the square of the diameter; and if the insulating covering be varied, the conducting wire being constant, the strength of the current will remain the same, but the induction will only decrease as the square root of the thickness.

6. *a.* That india-rubber surpasses all other materials in the smallness of the amount of its inductive discharge and the perfectness of its insulation. In the former respect a coating of india-rubber is fully equal to a coating of ordinary gutta-percha of double its thickness.

b. That Wray's compound, an artificial composition formed by the addition of other highly insulating materials to india-rubber, and the newly manufactured pure gutta-percha, closely resemble india-rubber in both particulars.

c. That the mixture of imperfectly conducting materials with gutta-percha, as carbon in Mr. Radcliffe's composition, or pounded cocoa-nut shell as in Mr. Godefroy's, has the disadvantage of greatly reducing the insulation and increasing the induction.

d. That the interposition of cotton thread between the wire and an india-rubber coating, as in Hall and Wells' preparation, also considerably increases the induction and diminishes the insulation. The induction is augmented because the cotton thread, which is a bad insulator, increases the surface of the conductor; and the insulation is impaired, not only because the insulating coating is diminished by the thickness of the cotton, but probably also in consequence of the greater inductive action. The interposition of cotton between two layers of gutta-percha is equally disadvantageous, as is proved by the experiments on Mr. Hearder's short line of 450 yards.

e. That the interposition of a viscid insulator between two coatings of gutta-percha neither decreases the induction nor improves the insulation of the line. If Mr. Hughes' process should possess any advantage, it will be found in the tendency of the viscid fluid to fill up air holes or flaws in the gutta-percha coatings.

f. Generally speaking, the more perfect the insulating property of the material is, the less is its inductive capacity. There are, however, several apparent exceptions to this rule among the experiments made, but there are so many causes to affect the experiments on insulation, that we are not warranted to infer, from these exceptions, the entire independence of the two properties.

7. Temperature affects the discharge only in so far as it affects the insulation.

8. It does not appear that pressure exerts any influence on the amount of induction discharge.

The velocity with which electricity travels through a metallic wire is exceedingly great; indeed, for practical purposes, instantaneous, when there is no induction. The well-known experiments of Professor Wheatstone, which were made with electricity of high tension, proved that this velocity is not inferior to that with which light travels through the planetary space; and the most reliable experiments which have since been made with electricity of comparatively low tension, which is more affected by adventitious circumstances, still give a very high speed. Messrs. Fizeau and Gounelle ascertained the velocity of electricity generated by a voltaic battery to be in copper wire 111,834 miles per second, and in iron wire 62,130 miles per second; and the more recent experiments of Messrs. Guillemin and Burnouf give the velocity in iron wire to be 111,847 miles per second. Messrs. Fizeau and Gounelle inferred from their experiments that the velocity of electricity is independent of the strength of the current and the section of the conductor, though it varies with the material.

Other experiments have been made, from which a much lower velocity has been concluded; but these have generally been on subterranean lines, in which the retardation has been proved to be owing to the inductive action of the surrounding medium, from which they are separated by an insulating covering. In these cases it is not the velocity of the electricity in the metal which is measured, but the time which is required for a certain amount of effect to be produced at the remote end of the wire, or, in other words, the time necessary to charge the wire to a certain amount. Most

electricians who have considered this matter in a theoretical point of view concur in stating that this time is proportional to the square of the length; many attempts have been made to prove this law, but satisfactory experiments, free from error or ambiguity, are still wanting.

Dr. Faraday, from some experiments made by Mr. Clark, gives two seconds for the time which the current requires to appear at the remote end of a subterranean telegraphic wire 1,500 miles in length, whilst in the same length of air wire the time was almost inappreciable. Mr. L. Clark states the time at which the current appeared at the distant end of a subterranean wire 788 miles in length was three-eighths of a second, whatever was the battery power employed; and, with regard to the Atlantic cable (before it was submerged), Mr. Walker states the interval between the electric force being communicated at one end and arriving at the other to be about two seconds. It is stated that Professor Thomson's delicate reflecting galvanometer showed a sensible current in less than one second.

If a measured charge, after its transmission through the wire, were discharged at the remote end in an equal interval of time, this retardation would be of little importance, as the charges at one end and the discharges at the other would succeed each other in the same order and with the same intervals between them; but as the discharge in great lengths of wire occupies a much greater time than the charge, if a new charge is given before the wire is completely cleared of the former, although the charges may be separated by strongly marked intervals, the discharges would be confounded into one, and it would be impossible to distinguish the various succession of currents, which represent the alphabetic characters, from each other. There is thus a limit to the number of signals which may be made in a given time, dependent on the inductive action brought into play on the line.

Various expedients have been resorted to, to increase the rapidity with which currents may be made to succeed each other; the one most generally employed is to discharge the near end of the line immediately after it is disconnected from the battery, before another current is sent into it. Mr. Varley and Messrs. Siemens, instead of discharging the return current into the earth, neutralize it by bringing the wire into contact with the pole of a weak battery, which produces a weak current in the opposite direction. Professor Jacobi employs a secondary battery, which, becoming polarized or charged by the transmitted current, occasions a current in the opposite direction, which acts during the cessation of the primary battery current and neutralizes the residual electricity in the wire.

Professor Hughes has made a number of experiments on submarine cables (before they were immersed) to ascertain the number of alternating currents he could pass through them in a given time, so that the signals should not be confused at the opposite end; he calls the succession of two alternating currents a wave. The results he obtained are stated in his evidence.

With respect to the number of words per minute transmitted through various submarine telegraphs in their submerged and working state, we collect the following particulars from the evidence:—Varna and Balaklava, 310 nauts, 5 words per minute, A. Varley; Varna and Constantinople, 150 nauts, 15 words per minute, A. Varley; Red Sea, 480 nauts, 12 words per minute, Forde; Red Sea, 730 nauts, 5 or 6 words per minute, Forde; Atlantic, 2,500 miles, $2\frac{1}{2}$ words per minute, Thomson, maximum; Atlantic,

2,500 miles, 2 words per minute, Thomson, verified by himself; Atlantic, 2,500 miles, 1.1 words per minute, C. F. Varley, by relay.

It seems to be generally admitted by experimentalists that the rapidity of succession of the signals is not affected by varying the number of elements of the battery.

The most important problem to solve in submarine telegraphy undoubtedly is, how the signals may be made to follow each other with the greatest rapidity; and this resolves itself into two questions, how far can the circumstances upon which inductive action depends be removed, and what are the best means to lead away or destroy the residual charge of the wire after the original current has ceased to act. In the course of this inquiry we have obtained some valuable information with regard to the former, but much remains to be done before the latter question can be fully answered. We would, however, draw attention to the remark made by Mr. Varley, that in the practical working of an underground or submarine line, the available speed for communication can only be taken at one-third of the attainable speed.

One of the most fatal things that can happen to a submarine cable is the occurrence of faults by which a conducting communication is established between the internal wire and the surrounding water; the smallest and almost imperceptible fissure is sufficient to effect this, and the utmost care should therefore be taken in the manufacture to avoid them. When gutta-percha is the insulating substance, they arise most frequently from air-holes produced during the preparation of the material, and occasionally from badly centering the wire, by which it is brought into close proximity to the external surface of the covering, so that a slight abrasion may occasion it to protrude. Both these defects may be in a great measure avoided by covering the wire with successive coatings. The wire, originally properly centered, may also become displaced in consequence of the softening of the material when exposed to a high temperature. In wires covered with masticated india-rubber these particular defects do not occur to such an extent, but, on the other hand, it is necessary that the joints of the spirally twisted slip should closely adhere, otherwise in every place of imperfect contact a fault would be generated. The masticated india-rubber when warmed is softened, and will yield to constant pressure; in this way wires so covered have failed. Another cause of defective insulation is the presence of some foreign substance or impurity. Very efficient tests have been devised to ascertain the existence of faults in a covered wire during or after the process of manufacture, and we do not doubt that a cable may be delivered by a manufacturer entirely exempt from faults.

But faults may originate during the process of laying, and even after this operation, in consequence of previous or subsequent injuries. Such injuries are sometimes mechanical, as from abrasion or other causes, and sometimes electrical, as, for instance, at places where the wire is eccentric or where the insulating covering is less perfect than in other parts of the line, the electricity escaping at the weak place may gradually injure the insulating covering so as at last to create a serious fault; this effect will be more likely to occur in long submarine lines, where strong currents of electricity are employed. In lines which can be worked with very weak currents such injuries may sometimes be postponed for a long time. These faults are difficult to discover and repair; but certain testing operations

founded on the laws of the voltaic current have enabled the place of a fault to be determined within certain limits, which can be the more accurately ascertained according as the insulation of the line is more perfect. Several of the modes of testing actually employed are described in the evidence.

At the period of the commencement of our inquiry the insulating properties of the gutta-percha then in use had been found to be such, that improvement was not deemed absolutely necessary. But we have shown above that the leakage of electricity through gutta-percha, as then prepared, is very large, and that if a foreign conducting substance should have found its way into the gutta-percha covering of a wire, or if an air bubble should occur in the covering and when immersed become filled with water, or if the conducting wires become eccentric, the electricity will leak out at these weak places, and when currents of any strength are used will gradually destroy the insulation at the spot; and the failure of the line will only be a question of time. We have, moreover, shown that perfectly pure gutta-percha, prepared by means of new processes, is far superior as an insulator to that in use at the time when we commenced our inquiry; and we have also shown that other substances are vastly superior to ordinary gutta-percha in insulating power and less liable to injury from heat. Sufficient time has not, however, yet elapsed to submit these new substances to the test of experience, and the past history of the submarine telegraph shows that the greatest precaution is necessary in employing any new material until its durability under all circumstances, as well as its electrical properties, have been ascertained. Amongst these substances we have mentioned india-rubber, which formerly failed and has been again introduced, in consequence of attempts having been made to use it, so as to avoid the defects to which it was originally found liable. For instance, it is necessarily laid on in ribbons, and it is proposed to effect the union of the edges of the ribbon without the use of any injurious solvent. In one case it is proposed to place the surfaces of newly cut material in immediate juxtaposition, by which means they unite; in another case the ribbon wound spirally on to the wire is covered with vulcanized india-rubber, and the whole is subjected to a high temperature and pressure to compel the union of the edges; in the third case the ribbon, after being wound spirally on the conducting wire, is passed through hot water; another suggestion is that the liquid milk as it comes from the tree should be brought over and be applied directly to the wire so as to solidify for the first time upon the wire, but this has never yet been tried. Caoutchouc is always much more free from impurity than gutta-percha; its properties are therefore far more constant, and the little experience which has been obtained as to its durability shows that there is no ground for apprehension on that score. Of the other compounds experimented upon by us the one proposed by Mr. Wray possesses remarkable powers of insulation; but how far the absence of experience of the durability of these new materials may warrant the adoption of any of them in lieu of gutta-percha is still a subject requiring great care and consideration. If, however, it should be thought unadvisable at once to adopt them, gutta-percha is now a well-tried material, the newly introduced pure gutta-percha has remarkable insulating properties, and the perfection with which copper wire can be coated with it renders it an efficient insulator under ordinary circumstances; and it is established beyond a doubt that, although instances have occurred in

which it has been damaged by marine organisms, and been found liable to decay under rare and peculiar local circumstances, this gum will last for many years when used in moderate temperatures, coated with Stockholm tar, protected from light and covered with water.

The general result of the experience thus gained is, 1st, that no material, however promising, can be relied on until it has stood the test of time; and 2nd, that too much care cannot be given to the manipulation of the insulating covering of a conducting wire, which is composed of substances so delicate in texture, and employed in such a manner that if a single defect, however slight, escapes detection during the process, the whole result is vitiated, as is the case with a chain when a single link is faulty. Perfection will be most likely to be secured by carefully testing the core in defined lengths, in water of a specified temperature, and causing every particular of the results of the tests to be carefully noted for future reference in case of faults.

3. *The External Protection.*

As we have already seen, all the means that had been adopted for preserving the insulation of telegraph wires under ground or through tunnels had been found, more or less, inefficient, except in cases where the pipes which contained them were saturated with moisture or filled with water. This was an important consideration in favour of the durability of submarine telegraphs, but the preservation from decay was only one of the objects to be attained by the protection of the insulated wires of a submarine cable. Gutta-percha is an extremely tender material, and is peculiarly liable to injury from the slightest cause. It requires, therefore, to be protected, even in the process of manipulation, and during its transport from place to place. Nothing has been found more effective for the first protection of gutta-percha wire, preparatory to any other covering, than wrapping it, immediately after it is made, with an ordinary tape wound spirally about it, the tape being steeped in tar or some other similar substance, to ensure its preservation and protect it from the air. A submarine line is, moreover, exposed to a very considerable strain during the act of paying it out of the vessel while laying it down in the ocean. It is necessarily subject to much handling during this process, and to a considerable amount of tensile strain, as it has to pass over "drums" through a break, and lastly, over the stern of the vessel into the sea. In heavy weather the motion of the vessel as it rises and falls throws considerable stress on the cable, and in deep water its actual weight becomes the most important element of strain, especially in cases where cables have been paid out in depths of between two and three miles, and when it is remembered that iron wire of the length of little over three miles will barely support itself. The first cable was designed for shallow water, and a covering of iron wire adopted for its protection. The wire was laid on spirally, and the weight of the cable was, by this addition, made so great that it was not found liable to injury from the anchor of any ordinary coasting vessel. As it would evidently have been imprudent to place such a material as iron in immediate contact with gutta-percha, the core was first surrounded with a considerable thickness of hemp steeped in Stockholm tar and tallow. This compound was found to have no destructive effect on the gutta-percha, and formed a safe material, in which the wire strands became embedded. The result was most successful; it was peculiarly adapted to the circumstances

in which it was placed; and no cable has been more durable. Subsequent cables were constructed upon the same plan, and, as long as the circumstances were similar, with similar success. The most important innovation consisted in this, that, instead of laying several insulated wires together in one rope, each was enclosed in a separate cable. Thus, between England and Holland, four separate wires are enclosed in four separate cables. This system was adopted because in shallow water, where so large a number of vessels are constantly passing, the cables were peculiarly liable to be damaged by anchors; and if one or more of the wires were damaged, the constant communication could be kept up by means of the other wires, and repairs were much facilitated by having so light a cable to deal with. These repairs involved the cost of the constant maintenance of a vessel for that purpose, the expenses of which caused the system to be abandoned, and a large and heavy cable (as heavy indeed as it was practicable to make it) has been laid down in lieu of the separate cables. It requires considerable power on board a vessel to be able to lift a heavy cable to the surface, and if a small vessel is so unfortunate as to foul her anchor, the anchor is invariably lost; but of course as the position of such a cable is well indicated to navigators, care should be taken to avoid such contingencies. In dealing, however, with great distances and depths of water heavy cables become impracticable, unless special vessels of enormous size be constructed for conveying and laying the cables. The Atlantic cable, small as it was, and though laid down in two halves, required a ship of no less than 3,200 tons burthen to carry each half. It is evident, therefore, that no vessels could have been found capable of carrying a much heavier cable. It was also thought that in extremely deep water the cable would practically be so completely out of the reach of accident, that any further protection than was necessary for its mere manipulation in laying down was unnecessary; but although in the case of the Atlantic the use of a small cable was perhaps unavoidable, it is a remarkable fact that in almost all cases small cables have been found liable to mishaps, while the heavier a cable has been the greater has been its durability. So long as iron wire is used for covering the cable, the strain occasioned by paying out in deep water is but little affected by the size or weight of the cable. Wire, however small, will break with its own weight at a length of or about three miles, and an iron rod, however large, also breaks at the same length, the strength being of course in proportion to the area, and therefore in proportion to the weight. In dealing, therefore, with deep sea cables, it is evident that the strain cannot be varied by a change in size of the cable itself, but by the alteration of the specific gravity of the substance employed. An iron cable we have seen breaks with its own weight at three miles in length; but a small gutta-percha wire being but of little greater specific gravity than water itself, might be paid out in any depth without any increase of strain. Indeed, one inventor has proposed that for great depths a cable lighter than water should be used, and anchored by weights at a given distance from the bottom, so that all abrasion would be avoided. These considerations led to the abandonment of iron wire, and the adoption of hempen as an external covering. The specific gravity of hemp is little greater than that of water, and consequently no strain occurs with hempen cables, whatever be their length. But the experience with hemp has not been satisfactory. It has been found too weak, after long immersion, to enable cables to be raised from much depth, and has been frequently eaten away by marine

animals and injured by marine vegetation; besides which it is very liable to abrasion from rocks or gravel; and its absolute durability, even when free from these dangers, is very doubtful. In order to increase the strength of the cable for laying or for raising for repairs, and to increase the specific gravity of the cable, the hemp has been combined with iron or steel wires, which have been embedded in it. The union of hemp and steel has been found to give much greater tensile strength than would at first sight appear probable from such a combination.

In all cases in which small wire has been used without other protection, the rapid corrosion of the wire has been a source of great inconvenience. The iron wire in the early cables has generally been galvanized, and its durability has been increased to a moderate extent by this process; but it is by no means a durable article, even with this precaution, and its durability depends on its local position. When covered with sand or mud, provided there be nothing in the mud itself destructive to iron, the wire appears to last a considerable time under water; but in certain localities, where the cable lies upon rocks, exposed to the constant flow of water, or where the mud or sand contains peculiar constituents destructive to iron, a very few months of submersion have completely destroyed the material. To avoid this corrosion the iron has, as we have mentioned above, been coated with hemp, and this again covered with tar or some other protecting material, and its durability has been undoubtedly increased by this process. The portions of the Atlantic cable covered with tarred yarn picked up in Trinity Bay, Newfoundland, were bright and free from rust; in other cases the hemp has been abraded from the wire; the durability of the cable then becomes merely a question of the durability of the hemp or tar covering.

The most simple and practical way of covering a rope, and that which consequently first suggested itself, was to lay the iron wire spirally on the core, but this method was not free from objections, among the greatest of which was the liability of such a rope to form itself into kinks, which depend to a great extent on the lay of the spiral covering. These kinks are apt to occur, whenever sufficient slack accumulates to allow them to form. If, in paying out a line, slack be allowed to run overboard whilst the vessel from any cause is laying to, it almost invariably becomes entangled and twisted at the bottom of the sea in the most remarkable manner, especially when there is a strong tide. Or if, in paying out the cable from the hold of a vessel, where it is laid in large carefully-arranged coils, these coils become entangled in the hold, a large quantity of slack is rapidly drawn into the breaks, the paying out suddenly stopped, and the cable sometimes damaged before the speed of the vessel can be checked. If the ordinary-twisted rope could be placed on a drum as it is manufactured, and the drum carried on board ship, and the line paid out directly from the drum into the sea by the rotation of the drum on its axis, no liability to kinking could arise; but such a process is evidently impracticable, the weight of the drum and its coil being far too great to be dealt with by any mechanical means. If such a rope were slipped off the drum, and in this state laid in the hold of the vessel, every coil that was paid out from the mass would throw a "turn" into the outlying rope, and these twists accumulating would rapidly tend to the destruction of the cable either by untwisting it, or tightening it to such a degree as to throw it into kinks. When the cable is laid in the vessel a turn is laid in with every coil; in

paying it out the reverse operation undoes the turn which has been laid in in the first instance. It is important to avoid coiling or uncoiling a cable, when finished, more often than is absolutely necessary; and even its transference from the factory to the ship, and from one ship to another, is hazardous. To remedy the inconvenience from kinking many devices have been suggested, such as plaiting the hemp or wire on the cable or laying them in parallel layers, and afterwards binding them all over with a spiral wire. Lines so constructed with parallel wires or strands possess this additional advantage, that in case of great tensile strain the parallel wires tend directly to protect the inner core from strain without in any way increasing the pressure upon it, whereas, if great tension be put on a twisted cable the elongation of the cable tends to the compression of the inner core, and that to such an extent as sometimes to cause considerable damage. Cables have been thus taken up in which the insulated wire has been greatly reduced in diameter by this tension, and the gutta-percha itself nearly destroyed. It also frequently happens, on the relief of this tension, that the contraction of the outer covering and of the gutta-percha causes the copper to knuckle through and come into contact with the strands of iron. Or, in other cases, when the cable has been elongated, the core of copper wire covered with gutta-percha has been permanently elongated, and forced itself through the strands of iron wire. It is an important consideration in the outer covering of a submarine cable that the delicate insulating material which covers the conductor is liable to numerous injuries during the process of laying on the outer covering, and that although the core may have been originally perfect, these injuries will sooner or later prove the destruction of the cable after it has been laid. The plan which has hitherto been adopted of covering the core with a serving of hemp or tape, saturated with some insulating material, enables any injuries which have occurred during the process of laying on the outer covering to be concealed until after submergence; it has therefore been suggested that it would be desirable to saturate the serving of hemp or tape with a conducting material, instead of with a non-conducting material, and to keep the cable in water and under electrical tests during the whole time of manufacture and until submerged. One mode of obtaining these tests would be to stow the cables in defined lengths, in a series of insulated tanks; and to keep a constant current on the cable; the proportion of the current which escapes from each tank would show whether the portion in one tank was worse than that in other tanks.

We have had laid before us numerous specimens of proposed cables for deep sea lines, as well as a series of experiments upon different forms of cable, made for the Treasury, by Messrs. Gisborne and Forde, for determining the form of the Falmouth and Gibraltar cable.

We consider it essential that in iron or steel covered cables the iron or steel should be protected against corrosion, both as a preservative before laying and as a security when laid, to enable them to be raised in case of injury. The protection of the iron or steel covering by hemp alone cannot be durable; nor indeed are we satisfied that any of the materials submitted for protecting the iron or steel covering would be durable if exposed to abrasion. It has been suggested that for cables in shallow water, where a solid covering is wanted, the outer covering should be sought in some hard metal not acted on by sea water—probably some alloy. We believe that a coating of tin upon steel or iron wires, with a further protection

by means of hemp saturated with tar or some more durable compound, or covered with a cheap form of gutta-percha would be advisable. Cables in which the strength depends on hemp will not be able to be raised for repairs, and unless the hemp is protected will be subject to destruction by marine animals and vegetation, by decay, and by abrasion on hard surfaces. The durability of hemp, however, may be much increased by coating it with some compound of gutta-percha or with marine glue. Whatever, however, be the outer covering, it should prevent any strain being brought on the inner core; the specific gravity should, therefore, be adapted to the depth and be such as to ensure the cable sinking evenly. We understand that the specific gravity of the Toulon and Algiers cable (1.9) recently submerged in depths of from 1,600 to 2,000 fathoms has proved satisfactory in practice. It is also to be observed that the necessity for joints to be made in a cable whilst laying and after it is laid down is sure to occur, and must be provided for. The difficulty of making a joint even of gutta-percha wire has already been alluded to, and whatever be the outer covering, it is evident that it will often be found necessary to make joints in it at sea under circumstances of considerable difficulty. In the ordinary twisted cable a splice can be made almost as secure as the original cable. Longitudinally covered cables will necessarily present greater difficulties, and the fact that joints will have to be made must be borne in mind in the selection of the outer covering of a cable. When three or four wires are included in the same covering, a defect in any one of the wires renders it necessary to cut the entire cable, and this difficulty is no doubt an objection to this kind of cable.

4. *Laying and Maintenance of Submarine Cables.*

We have only incidentally considered the question of laying submarine cables.

All the evidence which we have collected on the subject tends to show that no cable should be laid without detailed survey being previously made of the bottom of the sea where it is to be laid, in respect both of the irregularities of the surface and of the material of which the surface is composed. These materials should be subjected to analysis, to ascertain whether they are likely to produce any chemical action detrimental to the cable, and the course in which the cable is laid should be selected with a view to avoid, as far as possible, any bottom upon which either mechanical or chemical injuries are to be apprehended.

The Channel Islands telegraph, to which we have already alluded, affords a strong instance of the necessity of such a survey. The Red Sea telegraph, which has been entirely corroded where it lies over the Dhalac Bank, is another; the Bona and Cagliari cable, in which corrosion and fracture have occurred in deep water, is another; and the Cagliari-Malta telegraph, where the failures have occurred in comparatively shallow water, on a bottom strewed with rocks, or, as some persons have suggested, subject to volcanic action, is another.

Any ground liable to anchorage should be carefully avoided, and also water so shallow as to be affected by surface currents, yet whenever it is practicable, the depth should not be greater than to allow the recovery of the cable and its repair when necessary. It has been found almost impracticable to recover cables that have been laid in greater depths than from 300 to 400 fathoms, nor, except in very rare cases, have any under-water

currents been found to exist beyond a depth of from 60 to 100 fathoms. This, therefore, should form a criterion of the depth to be selected, provided such depth and a favourable bottom can be found. Silt or mud has, in some cases, been found to corrode the iron covering of cables very rapidly, in other cases to preserve them, according to the constituents of the mud. All uneven, rocky bottoms should be avoided, especially in the neighbourhood of volcanic action. The surveys that have been made have been far too superficial in this respect. It has very properly been observed that if the land between London and Brighton were under water, and were surveyed from the surface at distances of ten and fifteen miles only, the soundings might accidentally so occur as to indicate nearly a level bottom, whereas we know how undulating the country really is. So important is the selection of a proper site for a cable, that soundings should be taken at least every two or three miles, and much more frequently when any great irregularity is indicated by those soundings. In this way, dangerous reefs and precipitous spots might be avoided, and generally, with but little diversion, favourable ground might be found.

We trust that no telegraph cable will be laid in future until the best course has been selected by detailed investigation of this nature.

With respect to the mechanical operation of laying, we believe that many improvements have yet to be made. The first requisite is that the ship should have a large amount of surplus power, so as to be able to make way against contrary winds and seas.

The paying out a long cable from a vessel, however well prepared for the purpose, offers greater difficulties than would at first sight be imagined. The cable is laid in the hold of a vessel in as large a coil as possible, and for this purpose there are but few which will allow space enough; hence all ordinary vessels require considerable modification. The space must evidently be perfectly clear, no cross beams from side to side of the vessel can be allowed, and no perpendicular supports for the upper deck can be permitted throughout the whole of the area occupied by the cable. It is especially in steamers, where so much of the hold is occupied by engines, that the difficulties in this respect are experienced. The cable must be so placed as to load the vessel evenly, and must be so paid out that she shall preserve an even keel. Consequently, when, as in some cases, the cable has been laid in two separate holds at the head and stern, in a vessel not properly adapted, portions from one and the other must be alternately paid out, and the cable be, therefore, so laid that this shift may be made with facility, and without fouling any portion of the apparatus or of the rigging. But with ships arranged for the purpose, and provided with large water ballast, this difficulty is not experienced. Thus the Zandvoort cable, paid out from the *William Cory*, was coiled in two large coils, and the paying out of one coil was completed before the second coil was commenced upon, water being admitted as required to keep the vessel in trim. When the velocity with which a cable is paid out is considered, say from four to six knots in the hour, the change above mentioned in a heavy sea is an operation involving considerable risk, and it should therefore, if possible, be avoided. Moreover, vessels loaded with cable are liable to roll to an inconvenient extent, especially screw steamers, which are particularly applicable for this purpose. A cable stowed in a sailing vessel and towed by a steamer is unmanageable in a heavy sea, the steering is extremely difficult, and, in case of accident, it is impossible to check the progress of the sailing

vessel containing the cable. It is therefore imperative, especially with a long cable, that the vessel employed should be a steamer, of sufficient dimensions to contain coals and the cable for the whole voyage. A vessel capable of laying a cable, weighing three tons per mile, across the Atlantic will have a load of 6,000 tons, besides coals, and the clear space in her hold must be of sufficient dimensions for coiling this enormous length of cable. The hold must also be completely protected from the heat of the boilers. It is evident, therefore, that for such a purpose a vessel would have to be specially constructed, as no vessel existing, except the *Great Eastern*, would be adapted to the work. The labour attending the paying out of a cable is far greater than would be at first sight imagined; several relays of hands are necessary. The cable is coiled in the hold with as much regularity as possible, and each layer of coils is kept in its place by lashings of hemp, and sometimes by packings of wood for that purpose. The hands employed in freeing the coils have a difficult duty to perform. When going at full speed, the coils have to be handed out with great rapidity, and yet with great regularity, to prevent their being thrown into the breaks more speedily than required; while the lashings and packings of wood have to be carefully removed, so as to liberate only so much of the cable as is required. The guides through which the cable passes must be carefully contrived, to avoid the possibility of the cable getting out of the sheaves on receiving any check. It next passes through the break, which requires the most delicate handling to ensure the proper strain. If sufficient pressure be not put on the break, the cable runs out, from its own weight, with a far greater velocity than is due to the speed of the ship, and a large percentage is wasted.

The speed with which a cable is paid out should evidently precisely correspond with that of the vessel, and in deep water the greatest care is necessary to obtain such a result. In shallow water less difficulty is experienced in this respect; and so accurately were the steerage and regulation of the breaks under command in the first cable laid across to Holland, that though laid during a gale of wind, only seven per cent. of cable beyond that required for the direct measured distance was laid. This operation was performed, too, in a rapid tideway, the tide being transverse to the course, first on one side of the vessel and then on the other. The steering of the vessel was never, therefore, in a direct line, but at a considerable angle to the direction it was intended to go. When it is remembered how seriously the drag of the cable over the stern of the vessel interferes with the steerage, the great care that is necessary in the navigation will be appreciated. Another difficulty occurs from the derangement of the compasses of the vessel by so large a quantity of iron in their vicinity; for, although the compasses may have been first adjusted for the deflection due to this disturbance, yet, as the cable is paid out, its amount varies very considerably. To meet this difficulty, a separate vessel is required to guide the vessel containing the cable. In the case of the Dutch cable two tugs were employed always ahead of the vessel containing the cable. A straight course was made by these tugs alternately, and buoys were placed to make for during the day, while at night Bengal lights were exhibited from the tugs. It was, no doubt, owing to these precautions that so small a percentage of waste took place.

The cable, after passing through the break, runs over the stern of the vessel into the sea; in some cases over a sheave, and in others through a

hawse-pipe. But the steering of the vessel is far less interfered with if the cable is allowed free lateral motion over the stern of the vessel. For this purpose the rail round the stern is protected by a strong plate of cast iron, and on this plate the cable is shifted from side to side of the stern, as the steering renders it necessary. Its position requires constant changing, for the friction soon cuts deep grooves into the cast-iron plate, if allowed to run long in the same spot. The break usually employed has been a large drum of cast iron, round which three or four turns of the cable are laid, the surging being affected by means of a check which guides the cable on to the drum. The break is checked by an ordinary friction strap. Nothing has been found more effectual than constant personal superintendence for the regulation of this pressure, and, to facilitate this operation, many ingenious mechanical arrangements have been employed. The construction of the break is, indeed, a matter of the greatest importance. It is a machine which must be absolutely free from failure of any kind during the whole of the voyage, as any accident happening to the break endangers the safety of the whole operation. The laying of the cable should be uninterrupted from the beginning to the end of the journey, and with this view no derangement should be possible either in the machinery connected with the break or in the engines of the vessel. The speed, also, should be maintained as uniform as possible, and some speed always ensured, whatever may be the weather. To ensure this end, a vessel with abundance of power is absolutely indispensable, for even the choking of a pump, the heating of any part of the machinery, the derangement of a valve, or, indeed, the slightest mishap in any part of all this complicated machinery, may prove the loss of the whole cable. If, in spite of weather or tides the vessel could infallibly preserve a moderate speed across the Atlantic, the laying of the cable would involve but little risk. As long as the weather is calm, and all in good order, the operation is an extremely simple one, requiring only proper care and attention. But in heavy weather, when the vessel is pitching and rolling to such an extent that the men can scarcely keep their feet in the hold while unlashng and freeing the cable, the cable when the surging of the vessel throws sudden and unequal strains on the break, and more especially during dark nights, when the breaksmen himself can scarcely keep his place, and can see nothing of what is going on around him, the difficulty is of no ordinary kind. Paying out cable from the hold is much facilitated by an arrangement invented by Mr. Newall, technically termed the cone and rings, and described in the evidence appended. Several self-acting breaks have also been proposed and used, but these have met with only partial success.

Proposals have been made for alterations of form from the break-wheels hitherto used; for instance, Mr. Longridge proposes that the cable should pass in a spiral groove round a cone, and that the friction on the cone should afford the necessary retardation to the passage of the wire; this friction being varied as occasion arises by varying the length of groove which the cable is made to traverse. Another plan is to pass the cable between friction rollers. Captain Selwyn, R.N., proposes to obviate the liability to kink which a coiled cable possesses by placing the cable on a large floating cylinder, which is intended to be towed by a steamer, and which would roll over in the water and uncoil the cable as it progressed. We have great doubts as to the practicability of this plan.

The question of the paying out of submarine cables and the mathematical

laws to which they are subject in paying out have been already fully investigated in numerous well-known publications. We would, therefore, only observe that whilst we have described the arrangements in general use, the form of paying-out apparatus to be adopted will necessarily depend upon the cable to be used and the depths at which it is to be laid, and must therefore be determined by the engineer in each case.

The contracts that have been entered into have always necessarily presented considerable difficulties, differing entirely, as they do, from any ordinary contract, in which the work, when completed, can be easily measured, examined, approved, or rejected. If, on the one hand, the contractor is made solely responsible and liable for the protection of the line, and is to furnish a guarantee for his sufficient performance of the contract to make or lay it down, then it becomes a matter of great importance to determine for what period of time such a guarantee should be required. Moreover, if this responsibility is laid on the contractor, it is evident he ought to be subject to little interference from other parties, as any guarantee he may give will evidently be useless if, in carrying out the work, he is simply to obey the orders of others. On the other hand, if the control over the work is kept entirely out of his hands, it is difficult so to arrange the terms of the contract as to give him any important interest in the success of the undertaking, and without such interest it is absolutely impossible, in work of such a character, to ensure that diligent, constant care and attention to every detail which is so essentially necessary to its perfection. Again, the risk attending, more especially, upon laying down submarine cables in deep water, is evident from past experience, and is so great that no contractor can undertake the work without a very large margin for profit, which consideration, while it seriously increases the cost of such an enterprise, does not in practice secure its being properly carried out. The Electric Telegraph Company have preferred leaving the construction of the cable to the contractor, but the manufacture in every detail is under the personal superintendence and direction of their own officers, who are, in fact, responsible for the quality of the workmanship. In such case, no extravagant profit need be paid to the contractor, who incurs but little risk. In the other cases, where the whole matter has been left in the hands of the contractor, who, having only in view the laying down of the cable, which should be protected for a limited length of time, does what he has agreed to do in the most economical manner possible, and without regard to the ultimate durability of his work. All such contracts have been proved to be objectionable, and telegraph companies have acted, in respect to the manufacture of telegraphs, in a manner totally different from that in which they would have acted in any other operation. They begin by simply asking the contractor for what amount he would be prepared to lay down a cable in a given position, guaranteeing his performance for a limited time, as though a cable, unlike a railway or any other means of communication, were a thing which would necessarily, when once laid down, last for ever. No greater error could be committed. Nothing can be more precarious than the life of cable. The company which, without regard to its future maintenance, provides capital for merely one cable must be fortunate indeed if such a course should not prove its ruin. The future repair, maintenance, and restoration of a cable is as important an item as the maintenance of a railway.

Capital for all these purposes should be provided, as well as for the mere

construction of the cable itself. With our present experience no company would be justified in relying upon the successful action of one single cable in deep water, and two at least should be provided for in the original estimates, to meet the chances of accident in laying down. And beyond this, arrangements should be made that a sufficient reserve fund should be available for constant repairs, and, if necessary, renewal. This is also a most important consideration in regard to the route that is selected, for although the protection afforded by deep water is evidently very great, the chances being that the life of a cable will be much longer in deep than in shallow water; yet, on the other hand, faults do occur at the greatest depths, and in such case the cable is necessarily abandoned, as no repair is possible.

III.—SUMMARY OF PRINCIPLES WHICH SHOULD GOVERN THE CONSTRUCTION AND LAYING OF SUBMARINE TELEGRAPHS.

The materials of which a telegraph cable is composed, and the dimensions and form in which these materials are to be combined, necessarily depend upon the conditions of position, depth, nature of the bottom of the sea, and the climate in which the cable is to be laid. Each case will require special consideration and arrangements peculiar to itself, and we can only point out the general principles to which regard must be had by an engineer in designing and laying a submarine telegraph cable.

We have already stated these general principles, and we propose now, therefore, only to give a short summary of the main points which it is necessary to observe.

The following are the points to which we would invite attention :—

A.—Construction of the Cable.

1. The Conducting Wire.—The conductivity of the metal, other circumstances being the same, does not influence the amount of induction; a bad conductor, therefore, increases the resistance, the induction remaining the same. Hence the conducting wire should be formed of the material which possesses the highest conducting power which can be selected. To ensure this, it is desirable in contracts to provide that the conductivity of the wire shall be equal to that of a standard wire at a specified temperature, and then what the wire wants in quality must be made up in quantity at the contractor's expense. It is, however, better to obtain the material with the highest conducting power, because the larger diameter of the inferior conductor would give rise to increased induction. The standard wire should be of some metal or alloy not liable to oxidise, and not subject to rapid variation in conductivity from change of temperature. The metals and alloys we have described in an earlier part of the report appear well adapted to the purpose.

The conductor should be formed of a strand of wire, or of some modification of the strand form, as before mentioned, so as to prevent the fracture of one of the wires rendering the whole cable useless.

2. The Insulating Covering.—Of the materials which have been submitted to us, the best insulator by far is india-rubber; Wray's compound and pure gutta-percha nearly resemble india-rubber in its insulating properties. The induction discharge is directly as the length of a wire. The amount of induction discharge from wires of different diameters, with coverings of various thicknesses of the same insulating material, may be assumed to be, for practical purposes, directly as the square root of the diameter of the

[106]

wire, and inversely as the square root of the thickness of the insulating envelope.

Hence, by increasing the diameter of the wire and the thickness of insulating covering in the same proportion, the amount of inductive discharge remains the same. The force of the current in a voltaic circuit increases as the square of the diameter of the wire (the length of circuit being constant and the resistance of the battery being inconsiderable as compared with that of the metallic portion of the circuit), consequently if it be found inconvenient to increase the conducting wire and the insulating covering proportionately, greater advantage will be obtained by increasing the diameter of the wire than the thickness of insulating covering, for whilst the covering remains the same the induction discharge increases only as the square root of the diameter of the wire, whilst the force of the current increases as the square of the diameter; and if the insulating covering be varied, the conducting wire being constant, the strength of the current will remain the same, but the induction will only decrease as the square root of the thickness.

India-rubber surpasses all other materials in the smallness of the amount of its inductive discharge and the perfection of its insulation. A coating of india-rubber is fully equal to a coating of the gutta-percha hitherto in use of double its thickness. Wray's compound and the recently manufactured pure gutta-percha closely resemble india-rubber in both these respects. The mixture of imperfectly conducting materials with gutta-percha has the disadvantage of greatly reducing the insulation and increasing the induction. The interposition of cotton thread between the wire and an insulating coating considerably increases the induction and diminishes the insulation. The induction is augmented because the cotton thread, which is a bad insulator, increases the surface of the conductor; and the insulation is impaired, not only because the insulating coating is diminished by the thickness of the cotton, but probably also in consequence of the greater inductive action. The interposition of cotton between two layers of insulating material is equally disadvantageous. The interposition of a viscid insulator between two coatings of insulating material neither decreases the induction nor improves the insulation of the line, but the viscid fluid has a tendency to fill up air-holes or flaws in the insulating coatings. Generally speaking, the more perfect the insulating property of the material is, the less is its inductive capacity.

India-rubber and Wray's compound are not perceptibly affected by any ordinary increase of temperature, but increase of temperature has a very decided influence in diminishing the insulation of gutta-percha. This substance is, therefore, not well suited for cables to be laid in tropical regions. Temperature affects the induction discharge only in so far as it affects the insulation.

India-rubber and gutta-percha are subject to deterioration by exposure to the action of oxygen in the presence of solar light; but when light is excluded, gutta-percha will remain for months, and india-rubber for a considerable period unchanged in air, and both will remain unaltered for years in water, when light is excluded; indeed, sea-water is peculiarly favourable to the preservation of gutta-percha, especially when coated with Stockholm tar. As regards Wray's compound, we have seen a specimen of his No. 2 material, which it is stated has been exposed to alternations of temperature and exposure during two years, but sufficient time has not elapsed since

its introduction to enable us to express a definite opinion as to its durability.

India-rubber, gutta-percha, Wray's compound, and Chatterton's compound, all absorb water; the absorption is more rapid from pure water than from sea water, and more rapid from sea water than from concentrated brine. The thickness of the material affects the rate of absorption in a peculiar manner. The absorption of water by thick sheets stops short at a limit which is rapidly exceeded by thin sheets, pressure does not appear to increase the amount of absorption; and it does not appear that this absorption is to be feared as a cause of deterioration in submarine cables.

Pressure greatly improves the insulation whilst it is being applied, and this effect is more perceptible, as the substance is a worse insulator. But it does not appear that pressure asserts any influence on the amount of induction discharge.

The manner in which gutta-percha can be manipulated and placed on the wire, by being forced through a die, renders it less liable to flaws when laid over wire than india-rubber, but india-rubber is generally more free from impurity than ordinary gutta-percha; the more perfect insulation afforded by india-rubber, pure gutta-percha, and Wray's compound, enables flaws to be detected which would pass unnoticed with ordinary gutta-percha. The occurrence of flaws in the insulating covering of conducting wires can be best guarded against by laying on the material in several coats and by testing each of the coats under water at a specified temperature. These electrical tests should be continued during the covering of the cable and whilst it is being submerged, in order that comparative results may be obtained throughout.

3. The External Protection.—The form of the outer covering must in each case depend on the local circumstances affecting the site in which the cable is to be laid; and in selecting it, regard should be had to the fact that it is necessary to provide for the repair of the cable everywhere, except in depths which interpose a limit to the possibility of raising it.

It should be such as to protect the internal core against injuries or strains in laying or in raising for repairs, against the attacks of marine animals, and against abrasion upon a hard bottom; and it must be capable of having joints made in it with ease. It should be such as to give the cable sufficient specific gravity to ensure its sinking evenly. The material by which strength is given to the cable should be effectually protected against corrosion, and should be arranged so as to furnish the required strength with the minimum amount of elongation.

The suggestion that the materials used in the external covering should not be sufficiently good insulators to prevent the detection of injuries to the internal core during the process of covering, is one which deserves consideration.

4. General Conclusion as to Form of Cable.—The construction of a shallow-water cable must, of course, differ from that of a deep-sea cable. The shallow-water cable will not be much subject to injury in laying from the strain brought upon it, but it will be liable to abrasion and injury from currents, anchors, and other causes, and must, therefore, be constructed with a view of being raised frequently for repairs. For this class of cable the preservation of the outer covering from corrosion is of the first importance. The most desirable covering would, if it could be found, be a strong metallic covering not liable to corrode in sea water, rather than iron

wire covered with hemp or other material. For cables beyond the reach of anchors, and even of strong currents, it may be necessary to employ iron or steel wires to obtain the necessary strength for raising for repairs, either during laying or after they are laid. In this case, the danger from abrasion is less, and the iron or steel wire must be protected from corrosion by means of some outer covering. We think such an outer covering is to be sought in tarred yarn, protected by some cheap compound of gutta-percha or india-rubber. The wires by which strength is given should be laid on longitudinally, or with a very slow turn, and must be kept in place by a special binding, or by means of the covering compound. Cables of this general form may also, we believe, be made applicable to the greatest depths which will be met with. In any case the outer covering should be so devised as to prevent a strain coming on the core; and the specific gravity should be adapted to the depth and be such as to ensure the cable sinking evenly.

With our present experience we believe the safest core for a submarine cable is a strand of purest copper wire, in which solidity is obtained by one of the arrangements before mentioned, and coated, according to the locality in which it is to be employed, with purified gutta-percha or with india-rubber, protected by a covering of gutta-percha, and the whole served round with tarred hemp to form a bed for receiving the protecting external wires; each coating of insulating material should be tested in water of a specified temperature to ascertain that its insulation was equal to a specified standard. The size of the conductor and the thickness of the insulating material should be such as to allow of the line being always worked with moderate currents. A long cable must, however, insulate sufficiently to resist the tension arising from currents termed "deflections" or "earth currents," which Mr. Varley states have sometimes, in a distance of about 70 miles, a tension of more than 100 cells of Daniel's battery.

B.—Laying and Maintenance of Submarine Cables.

1. Preliminary Survey.—Before the route in which a submarine telegraph cable is to be laid is decided on, a careful and detailed survey of the nature and inequalities of the bottom of the sea should be made, and that line selected where there are fewest probabilities of injuries from mechanical or chemical causes, and where (if possible) the depths are such as to allow of the cable being raised for repairs. In such a survey it is of more consequence to ascertain the relative differences of level of the bottom of the sea at every step than the actual depths; and it would be of great advantage for this purpose if some instrument could be devised which would enable the actual outline of the bottom of the sea to be traced. The actual position in which a cable is laid should be defined with the greatest precision attainable, to facilitate future repairs.

2. Apparatus for laying Submarine Cables.—The failures which have occurred in laying submarine cables are mainly attributable to the employment of ships which have not been constructed for the purpose, and of defective paying-out apparatus. This latter must depend so entirely upon the form of cable to be used, and the depths in which it is to be laid, that it must be left to the engineer to devise in each case. In depths where repairs are possible the amount of slack paid out should be sufficient to enable the cable to be raised without injury for repairs.

The question of the ships to be used is one of great importance, to which sufficient attention has never yet been paid. The ship should be of large capacity, to admit of the cable being coiled easily without injury, and great care should be taken to isolate the hold from the engine-room; it should be of a form to allow of the cable being paid out without any material alteration in the trim of the ship taking place; it should have sufficient power to enable it to maintain a speed of from four to six knots per hour in the direction in which it is proceeding, in any weather; and it should be very steady in a rough sea. Those qualities point to the necessity of special ships being built for the purpose. There are difficulties in the way of this being done by contractors for laying cables, because they cannot afford to have ships idle on their hands, and they consequently either hire a ship, or build one to serve afterwards for other purposes. But we believe that a ship of the construction we have shown to be necessary for laying a cable would, when not employed in laying cables, be found extremely useful for the ordinary purposes of commerce.

3. Contracts for laying Submarine Cables.—If the contractor is made solely responsible for the safe laying of the line, he cannot be made subject to much interference by other parties: but he will put on a large additional price to cover the risk he incurs, and the extra cost to be paid does not secure the success of the enterprise. If, on the other hand, he is not made responsible, he will have little interest in the success of the undertaking, and without such interest it is difficult to secure that close supervision to the details of the manufacture which will alone obtain perfection.

The question, no doubt, to some extent, depends upon who the contractor is. But, in any case, we believe that a divided responsibility would be fatal to this, as it is to any other enterprise. Hence, we should suggest that a defined, but limited, pecuniary responsibility should be placed on the contractor, who must therefore be allowed a certain liberty in his arrangements, but the specification for the manufacture should be drawn up by the engineer, and include clauses reserving to the engineer the right of approving of all the arrangements to be made. At present, the manufacture of the core, consisting of the conducting wire with its insulating covering, is necessarily in the hands of different persons from those who contract for the manufacture of the external protection and for laying the cable; the core would therefore be delivered to the latter contractor in a specified electrical condition, for which he would be held liable if accepted by him.

With respect to the period for which the guarantee should be made, we believe that the best plan would be that the contractor for laying the cable should contract for its maintenance for a certain number of years, and that the arrangement should be such that whilst he received payment for the actual cost of laying, he should receive his profit, after the cable was laid, in the shape of an annual sum for maintenance, by which means the greater the number of years the cable lasted without repairs the larger would be his profit.

In providing for a telegraphic line no company can rely on the successful action of the cable; capital should be provided, not only for laying the line, but for properly-constructed ships and other appliances for raising and repairing it in the depths which would admit of it, and for laying a second line to be used whilst repairs are in progress; and there should be provided out of revenue a reserve fund for the repair, maintenance, and renewal of the line.

We have thus endeavoured to lay before your lordships in a condensed form the results of our inquiry. We are much indebted to the various persons who have given us information; and for further details we beg to refer to the appendix and minutes of evidence attached to this report. We desire, however, in conclusion, to observe that we are clearly of opinion that the failures of the existing submarine lines which we have described have been due to causes which might have been guarded against had adequate preliminary investigation been made into the question. And we are convinced that if regard be had to the principles we have enunciated in devising, manufacturing, laying, and maintaining submarine cables, this class of enterprise may prove as successful as it has hitherto been disastrous.

The report was signed by Captain DOUGLAS GALTON, C. WHEATSTONE, WILLIAM FAIRBAIRN, and GEORGE P. BIDDER, committee appointed by the Board of Trade; and by Messrs. EDWIN CLARK, CROMWELL F. VARLEY, LATIMER CLARK, GEORGE SAWARD, committee of the Atlantic Company.

EMIGRATION.

Twenty-first General Report of the Emigration Commissioners.

THE entire emigration during the year 1860 amounted to 128,469 persons, being 8,037 more persons than in 1859, and 31,659 less than the average of the preceding five years. This emigration consisted of 103,001 from England, 3,872 from Scotland, and 21,596 from Ireland, and was distributed as follows, viz.:—To the United States, 87,500; to Canada, 8,848; other North American colonies, 938; to Australian colonies, 24,302; to all other places, 6,881: total, 128,469.

We are unable to give accurately the number of emigrants who passed from the United States into Canada, or *vice versâ*; but Mr. Buchanan, the chief emigration agent, classifies the emigration of 1860 from the United Kingdom, exclusive of foreigners who embarked at English ports, as follows:—English, 2,491; Irish, 2,831; Scotch, 1,850: total, 7,172; and he estimates that about three-fourths of the English and Scotch, and about one-fifth of the Irish, remained within the province, which would reduce the emigration to Canada to 3,821. On the other hand, he considers that the arrivals in Canada, *viâ* the United States, may be computed at about 4,829. It is deserving of notice that out of the 7,836 emigrants to the St. Lawrence (the total number from the United Kingdom, according to Mr. Buchanan's returns), 6,932 went by steamers, and but 904 by sailing-vessels, and that only seven of the latter vessels had a sufficient number of passengers to bring them within the Passengers' Act. The emigration was very healthy. With the exception of an elderly person who died suddenly on the day of her arrival, Mr. Buchanan states that there were no deaths among the steerage passengers in any of the steamers. The deaths in the sailing vessels were only three.

The mortality in the ships which proceeded to the United States, so far as we can ascertain, was as follows:—To New York, .16 per cent.; to Boston, .02 per cent.; to Philadelphia, .04 per cent.; to New Orleans, .13 per cent. This return is obtained from the owners or agents of the vessels in which the people proceeded, which, as no official returns have been

[111]

received, is the only source of information open to us; but, judging from the experience of former years, we feel no doubt that it may be relied on.

The remaining emigrants to the North American colonies were distributed as follows:—To New Brunswick, 294; to Nova Scotia and Cape Breton, 109; to Newfoundland, 465; to Prince Edward's Island, 16; to British Columbia, 54; to Vancouver's Island, 54.

The remittances from settlers in North America to their friends in this country, during the year 1860, was 576,932*l*.

To Australia the number of persons who sailed from this country last year was 18,577, of whom 12,168 went out at their own expense, and the remaining 6,409 were assisted out of public funds.

The mortality in this emigration was among the unassisted (so far as we have returns) equal to .39 per cent., and among the assisted equal to .59 per cent. But of those who died among the latter, one-half were children under four years of age, of whom there is always a much larger proportion in the assisted than in the unassisted emigration. The assisted emigrants were all of the labouring class, and their emigration will no doubt be as advantageous to the colonies as to themselves.

At the commencement of 1860 the funds in our hands for the conduct of Australian immigration were for—New South Wales, 25,000*l*.; Victoria, 50,000*l*.; South Australia, 9,000*l*.

During the year the only remittances we received were 54,000*l*. from New South Wales, South Australia, and Queensland. The Governor of New South Wales has intimated to us that the assisted emigration is to terminate with the fulfilment of the existing engagements. The assisted emigration to South Australia has also been discontinued, and we have been directed to pay over the balance of the funds in our hands to the colonial agent. As regards Victoria, the Government emigration will cease as soon as the small balance in our hands is exhausted. So far, therefore, as the selection and despatch of emigrants is concerned, our operations, which since the middle of 1847, though varying in extent, have never been interrupted, may (with the exception of Queensland) be considered as for the moment suspended. During those fourteen years the number of ships sent out by us (exclusive of those sent to India with the families of soldiers) has been 899; the number of emigrants conveyed in them, 277,418; the mortality on the voyage, 5,152, or at the rate of 1.85 per cent. It is with sincere gratitude and the highest satisfaction that we add that, with the exception of one vessel, the *Guiding Star*, which never reached her destination, we have never had an accident in any of our ships attended with loss of life.

The number of vessels despatched by us in 1860 to Australia was—New South Wales, 8; Queensland, 1; Victoria, 6; South Australia, 3; Western Australia, 1. Of the passengers in the Western Australian ship, 216 were general emigrants selected by us, and 51 were nominated by relatives or friends in the colony. We also sent out 36 persons to Western Australia by private ships. To the Cape of Good Hope we despatched 6 vessels, with 1,384 emigrants selected by the emigration agent for the Cape; and to Natal, 3 vessels, with 330 emigrants. We also provided passages to Natal for 35 persons by private ships. Besides these ships we chartered, at the desire of his Royal Highness the General Commanding-in-chief and the Secretary of State for India, five vessels for the conveyance of the wives and children of soldiers serving in India.

The number of emigrants who have returned to the United Kingdom during the year 1860, so far as we can ascertain, was 24,434, of whom 17,798 were from the United States, 1,098 from British North America, 5,360 from Australia, and 178 from other places.

Passing now from emigration from the United Kingdom, we proceed to notice the emigration from India and China into the West Indies and Mauritius. During the season of 1859-60 there were despatched the following vessels to the West Indies:—From Calcutta—2 ships, with 738 emigrants, to Jamaica; 13 ships, with 4,785 emigrants, to British Guiana; 5 ships, with 1,816 emigrants, to Trinidad; and 2 ships, with 711 emigrants, to St. Lucia: total, 22 ships, with 8,050 emigrants. From Madras—2 ships, to British Guiana, with 614 emigrants; and 4 ships, to Trinidad, with 1,225 emigrants.

The mortality in the Madras ships was rather below that of the preceding season, and averaged only 1·19 per cent.; but in the Calcutta ships we regret that it exceeded that of the preceding season to the extent of 3 per cent., the mortality in 1858-9 having been 9·4 per cent., and in 1859-60 12·11 per cent. It was greatest, as might be expected, in vessels in which cholera made its appearance soon after embarkation. In 8 ships where this was the case the percentage of deaths was not less than 17·1

The proportion of females to males was to have been raised in 1860 to 50 per cent., but as in the convention with the French Government, by which emigration from British India to Réunion had been permitted, the proportion of females was fixed at 25 per cent. only, it necessarily followed that to put the British colonies on an equality with Réunion no severer rule should be applied to them. The emigration agents were therefore authorized to send emigrants with no larger proportion than 25 per cent. of women, but they were, at the same time, instructed to make the proportion as large as they could.

The report contains much information respecting the colonies, but the substance of it appears in the document on the past and present state of the colonies.

The following describes the progress of BRITISH COLUMBIA.

In the course of last year the treasury has been transferred from Victoria to Westminster, where all the financial business of the colony is now transacted. The assay office has been in operation since the month of August, and up to the 28th of that month 1,600 ozs. of gold dust had been smelted and run into bars. The other departments are likewise reported to be in a state of efficient organization. There has not been much activity in building, but town property in New Westminster sustains its former price. The run from New Westminster to Douglas can now be made by one of the river steamers in about sixteen hours, and the whole distance from Victoria to Douglas in twenty-four hours, being little over half the time occupied by the same journey last year. Freights had consequently been reduced to 3*l.* 8*s.* a ton, which is 25 per cent. less than the former rates.

Fragments of silver and copper ore have been discovered in the countr, bordering on Harrison lake and river, under the researches of Dr. Forbes of H.M.S. *Topaz*. The bed of the river yields gold almost everywhere in small quantities. A brisk trade is being carried on from Douglas, an inconsiderable but improving town, with the mining districts of the interior by means of pack mules. The waggon road from Douglas to Lillooet Lake, twenty-eight miles, is nearly completed, having been laid out and executed

by Captain Grant and a detachment of Royal Engineers, with much care and professional ability. A number of waggons have commenced running on the new road, by which the cost of transport has already been greatly reduced. The Governor looks forward to the time when goods of all kinds will be carried at considerably reduced prices from Douglas to Cayash, which is the chief town of a valuable mining district, where all goods are necessarily deposited in their transit to the interior.

A new gold field has been discovered in the southern part of British Columbia, at Rock Creek, and in Shimilkomeen country. "The gold is nuggety and of fine quality, being readily separated from the soil without the use of quicksilver, and is found away from the watercourses as well as in the river beds, and the miners are said to be realizing from six to fifty dollars a day to the man." The same report mentions a discovery of a silver lead mine at Union Bar, near Fort Hope.

From a report of Mr. Begbie, the judge of the colony, which contains a very interesting description of the country and the people, we learn that the white population, the greater part of which is described as quite nomad in its propensities, amounted last year, according to a conjectural estimate, to from 1,200 to 6,000 or 7,000, of whom one-sixth probably are British subjects, either from the mother country or the provinces; the remaining five-sixths are either adopted citizens or born citizens of the United States, or Germans, French, and Italians. Mr. Begbie describes the white population as peaceable, orderly, and well conducted, but shrewd, independent, and self-reliant; strongly impregnated with American views, of wandering habits, encamped merely and not settled.

Besides these there is the native population, and large and increasing bodies of two different imported races, viz.:—"The Chinamen, important from their great numbers, industry, and tenacity of gain; the negro, or mixed negro population, important from their acquaintance with our language and laws, and from their presence being in great measure the test and pledge of British as contrasted with United States domination. All three of these races are despised and to some extent disliked by the prevalent white races."

The land regulations do not differ in principle from those mentioned in our last report. All town and suburban lots and surveyed agricultural lots are to be offered for sale in the first instance by public auction, and if not sold may afterwards be purchased by private contract at the upset price, which for country lands is fixed at 4*s.* 2*d.* per acre, to be paid on delivery of the deed of grant; but settlers, for a fee of 8*s.*, may obtain, without immediate payment, small portions of land on recording their claim with the nearest resident magistrate, to any quantity not exceeding 160 acres, and when the Government survey shall extend to this pre-empted land, they may purchase it at 4*s.* 2*d.* per acre, provided it has been improved to the extent of 10*s.* an acre.

The emigration from the United Kingdom during the forty-six years from 1815 to 1860 inclusive, amounted to 5,046,067, of whom 1,196,521 went to the North American colonies, 3,048,206 to the United States, 708,225 to the Australian colonies and New Zealand, and 93,115 to other places. The average annual emigration from the United Kingdom from 1815 to 1860 was 109,697; for the ten years ended 1860, 228,720.

SHIPPING RETURNS.

AN ACCOUNT of the NUMBER and TONNAGE of VESSELS, distinguishing their NATIONALITY, which ENTERED INWARDS and CLEARED OUTWARDS with CARGOES (including their repeated Voyages) in the Year ended 31st of December, 1861.

Nationality of Vessels.	Entered.		Cleared.	
	Vessels.	Tons.	Vessels.	Tons.
United Kingdom and Dependencies	21,060	6,304,099	26,454	6,841,031
Russian	407	125,285	413	122,957
Swedish	945	155,774	1,041	167,927
Norwegian	2,917	634,435	1,903	312,064
Danish	2,321	225,687	3,285	322,762
Prussian	1,488	873,562	1,655	375,055
Mecklenburgh and Oldenburgh	630	128,989	970	174,161
Hanoverian	778	67,927	1,687	134,596
Hanse Towns... ..	561	238,964	895	306,375
Dutch	1,250	153,624	1,682	221,215
Belgian	296	61,218	250	56,479
French	1,686	135,906	5,135	495,755
Spanish	293	79,005	264	83,552
Portuguese	143	26,527	134	23,387
Sardinian	249	63,284	298	78,163
Sicilian	124	26,661	203	42,781
Austrian	357	114,744	435	141,340
Greek	67	17,445	94	24,050
Other European Countries	66	17,069	68	17,850
United States of America	1,932	1,647,076	1,580	1,369,237
Other Countries in America, Africa, or Asia ...	19	7,288	23	7,356
Total	37,589	10,604,569	48,469	11,318,093

AN ACCOUNT of the NUMBER and TONNAGE of VESSELS, distinguishing BRITISH and FOREIGN (employed in the Intercourse between Great Britain and Ireland and otherwise), ENTERED INWARDS and CLEARED OUTWARDS, with CARGOES, at Ports in the United Kingdom, during the Year ended 31st December, 1861.

Vessels.	Entered.		Cleared.	
	Vessels.	Tons.	Vessels.	Tons.
Employed in the Intercourse between Great Britain and Ireland:—				
British	35,046	5,838,264	34,766	5,692,432
Foreign	98	16,797	93	15,138
Other Coasting Vessels:—				
British	116,522	11,423,515	121,456	11,626,135
Foreign	427	76,659	315	54,893
Total { British	151,568	17,261,779	156,222	17,318,567
	525	93,456	408	70,031
Total	152,093	17,355,235	156,630	17,388,598

AN ACCOUNT of the NUMBER and TONNAGE of VESSELS ENTERED INWARDS and CLEARED OUTWARDS, with CARGOES (including their repeated Voyages) from and to various COUNTRIES, during the Year ended 31st December, 1861.

Countries whence Arrived, and to which Departed.	Entered.		Cleared.	
	Vessels.	Tons.	Vessels.	Tons.
British Possessions:—				
North America	2,432	1,313,280	1,066	520,218
East Indies, including Ceylon, Singapore, } and Mauritius	1,043	756,381	987	787,075
Australia	142	113,544	412	333,880
West Indies	596	179,184	580	175,732
All other Parts	2,368	396,234	2,660	564,987
Foreign Countries:—				
Russia, Northern Ports	2,356	538,805	1,907	425,817
" Southern Ports	767	259,349	163	63,597
Sweden	2,049	386,470	1,429	219,229
Norway	1,875	294,384	1,216	157,052
Denmark	1,584	181,947	3,828	441,027
Prussia	2,653	527,165	2,536	489,120
Hanover	271	30,421	1,127	113,162
Hanse Towns	1,230	390,950	2,838	686,346
Holland	2,161	444,001	2,927	566,454
Belgium	1,323	228,418	1,397	226,632
France	5,100	654,424	12,636	1,593,889
Spain	1,305	215,014	2,308	491,998
Portugal	965	163,388	897	178,976
Sardinia	115	45,163	655	243,921
Two Sicilies	416	71,140	524	108,711
Austria	176	67,869	307	105,583
Turkish Dominions, including Wallachia } and Moldavia... ..	786	208,815	569	172,976
Other European States	509	95,268	1,036	163,553
Egypt	454	195,980	377	169,133
United States	2,520	1,983,384	1,410	1,339,882
Mexico, Foreign West Indies, and Central } America	780	273,478	889	319,465
Brazil	299	85,931	567	209,552
Peru and Chili	357	203,909	252	120,479
Other States in America, Africa, and Asia...	935	307,273	977	329,657
Total	37,589	10,604,569	48,469	11,318,093

ABSTRACT of TONNAGE ENTERED and CLEARED in each Month of 1861.

	Jan.	Feb.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
Entered:—	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.
British	403,810	409,427	407,809	435,845	506,113	550,418	755,861	571,572	640,364	554,190	657,556	496,935
Foreign	268,251	281,458	311,124	359,617	432,236	373,637	489,263	402,862	492,370	388,013	266,163	246,390
Cleared:—												
British	328,661	444,161	559,645	691,670	630,003	564,162	675,901	672,892	665,059	642,070	470,763	476,044
Foreign	282,110	299,637	302,229	464,347	406,776	442,914	430,111	390,108	367,355	501,927	323,260	265,578

EAST INDIA.

Statement exhibiting the Moral and Material Progress and Condition of India during the Year 1859-60.

THIS statement is divided into 18 chapters, the 1st, narrating the Course of Legislation; 2. Report on Finance; 3. Report on the Post-office; 4. Report on Electric Telegraphs; 5. Report on the Marine Department; 6. Report on Geological Survey; 7. Report on Public Works; and 8 to 14, Reports on the Administration of the respective Presidencies and other Provinces.

CHAPTER I.—*The Course of Legislation.*—The acts passed during the year were as follow:—Act XI. To improve the law relating to sales of land for arrears of revenue in the Lower Provinces under the Bengal Presidency. Act XII. To make provision for the trial of pilots for breach of duty. Act XIII. To provide for the punishment of breaches of contract by artificers, workmen, and labourers. Act XIV. To provide for the limitation of suits, fixing 30 years for suits against depositaries, pawnees, or mortgagees for the recovery of movable property; 60 years for the recovery of unmovable property; 12 years for suits relating to specialities and other similar securities; and 6 years for other personal demands. Act XV. For granting exclusive privileges to inventors. Act XVI. to Act XXVII. of 1859 relate to local matters. Act I. of 1860 empowers the Governor-General in Council to increase the rate of duty on salt imported into the North-Western Provinces. Act VII. To enable joint stock bank companies to be formed on the principle of limited liability. Act IX. makes provisions for the speedy determination of disputes between workmen engaged on railways and other public works and their employers. Act X. To alter the duties of customs on goods imported and exported by sea, making a reduction of 10 per cent. on all duties except tobacco, wool, flax, hemp, jute, raw hides, and skins; maps, prints, and works of art, to come duty free. Act XI. To enforce the fulfilment of indigo contracts, and to provide for the appointment of a commission of inquiry. Acts XII. to XX. are of a local nature.

CHAP. II.—*Finance.*—The report on financial transactions shows that the duty on Malwa opium, exported from Bombay, was raised from 400 rupees to 500 rupees per chest. The salt duty was raised from 12 annas to 1 rupee per maund; and the Government price of salt was also increased to rupees 1-2 per maund. With a view to encourage the cultivation of opium, greater advances were authorized to be made to the cultivator.

Under the report on finances, the following observations are made on a gold and paper currency in India. With a despatch, dated the 27th April, 1859, the Government of India forwarded to the home authorities a note prepared by their financial secretary regarding a Government paper currency in India, in which note he suggested the issue of local notes by Government, the same to be receivable at the option of the public, and to be convertible at a few large treasuries conveniently situated in circles of country from 300 to 400 miles in diameter; the lowest denomination of such notes to be 10 rupees. The Government, in forwarding the note, expressed their opinion that, although such a measure would certainly be productive of some advantage, and prove convenient both to the public and to the Government, it was, nevertheless, open to serious risk, whilst there

was, at the time, an objection to the scheme, on the ground that it would be unwise to introduce it while the security of the Indian Government was still regarded with some degree of mistrust by the Indian community.

On the 25th and 31st May, 1859, the Bengal Chamber of Commerce suggested that it was desirable to introduce into India gold as a subsidiary currency, to the extent of 200 rupees, recognizing the "sovereign" as the equivalent of 10 rupees. To the adoption of this suggestion the Government objected, on the ground of the great liability to frequent alteration in the relative value of gold to silver, and for other specified reasons. On the 25th July the Chamber replied to the objections, and re-urged the measure for favourable consideration.

Her Majesty's Secretary of State, in reply to the despatch from India of the 27th April, 1859, on the subject of a paper currency, observed, that her Majesty's Government were fully sensible of the advantage that might be derived from introducing a well-regulated paper currency into India; but the wisdom of cautiously avoiding any measure calculated, however slightly, further to increase the sensitiveness of the Indian money market was so manifest, that they were not disposed then to direct the introduction of such a currency, whether in the form of Government notes, or by means of extended privilege to the chartered banks; but that he was prepared to give every encouragement to a well-considered measure for the purpose, whenever the time should appear to the Government of India to have arrived for introducing it. He also observed that, as intimately connected with the question, the advantage of giving to the "sovereign" currency in India, at a rate to be fixed, from time to time, by Government, had likewise been under consideration. But that as there was considerable difficulty in adopting any measure which had been suggested for the purpose of giving currency to gold coins, her Majesty's Government refrained from issuing any directions on the subject, until it was further considered by the Indian Government.

With reference to this despatch, the Right Honourable the Governor-General forwarded to the Secretary of State, on the 29th December following, a copy of a minute by the Right Honourable James Wilson, embodying a scheme of a paper currency in India, which was fully approved by the Governor-General, and for which he solicited the sanction of the home authorities. His lordship at the same time forwarded another minute by Mr. Wilson on the subject of the introduction of a gold currency into India, in which minute Mr. Wilson had shown the necessity of having in this country but one standard of value, and the expediency of adhering in India to the silver standard as that which has been long established here; the advantages of a gold currency being fully secured by the establishment of a well-regulated paper currency.

In March last the home authorities sanctioned the proposed scheme of a paper currency, and subsequently (26th May, 1860) expressed their concurrence in the opinion that it is not at present advisable to take measures for introducing a gold currency into India, as they believed that the wants of the community would be better met by means of a paper currency.

Savings Banks.—Regimental savings banks have been established.

The Mint.—The Calcutta Mint is in working order. In 1859–60, it assayed gold, 3,109 rupees Government assay; 9,61,124 individuals' value: silver, 4,05,51,240 Government assay; 2,66,89,869 individuals' value. In

the coining department, the total number of pieces coined was 12,41,63,765, being 97,31,117 more than the number coined in 1858-59.

CHAP. III.—*Post Office*.—The total number connected with miles of mail road in India is 39,338, viz., Bengal, 10,171; Madras, 7,567; Bombay, 9,477; North-Western Provinces, 12,123: of which, 711 railway, 5,861 mail-cart and horseback, and 32,766 runners and boats. The cost of conveyance was, foot line, rupees 2.11.½; horse line, rupees 13.6.8½; mail-cart, rupees 19.11.3; and boats, rupees 11.6.9. The number of letters during 1858-59 was, Bengal, 9,564,960; Madras, 8,384,151; Bombay, 15,177,816; and North-Western Provinces, 17,367,072: total, 50,493,999. The number of newspapers was 4,883,976. The gross receipts of the post-office in India amounted to 67,67,647 rupees. The gross disbursements, 45,12,793 rupees.

CHAP. IV.—*Electric Telegraphs*.—Four new lines had been constructed, and great progress was made in completing other lines. The Morse system or signalling by the ear has been extended with success. The expenditure of the department amounted to 17,20,427 rupees. The number of messages sent was 170,566.

CHAP. V.—*Marine*.—The sea-going steamers were seven in number, viz., the *Fire Queen*, 760 tons; the *Australian*, 1,200 tons; the *Sydney*, 1,200 tons; the *Arracan*, 1,200 tons; the *Bentinck*, 2,000 tons; the *Armenian*, 780 tons; and the *Nemesis*, 400 tons. Many merchants' ships were taken up for transports, especially for the China expedition. The expenditure and receipts in the Marine Department, on account of steam and other vessels, and establishments at out-ports, was—expenditure, 30,50,248 rupees; receipts, principally *pro forma*, 9,91,746-13-4 rupees.

CHAP. VI.—*Geological Survey and Museum of Geology*.—The survey proceeds systematically, though slowly. Returns have been obtained of the quantity of coals raised, and the Museum of Geology is increasing in importance.

CHAP. VII.—*Public Works*.—The expenditure for public works was 3,22,21,675 rupees, but of this amount a large proportion, viz., 1,23,94,670 rupees, were expended on military and naval objects. In works for internal improvement the sum expended was 1,07,74,545 rupees. The military works comprised barracks, forts, hospitals, accommodation for troops, &c. The sum spent for judicial purposes included gaols and courts; that for the revenue, new custom-houses and opium-factories; that for ecclesiastical objects, building and restoration of churches; that for the marine, harbour works; that for agriculture, drainage and irrigation works; and that for communications, bridges, roads, canals, &c. Certain beneficial changes have been made in the administration of the public works department. The works in connection with the great canals in construction are advancing. The Ganges Canal has grown very largely; so have the Eastern and Western Jumna Canal.

The eighth chapter refers more especially to the administration of the BENGAL PRESIDENCY.

On the 2nd of May, 1859, Mr. Grant was appointed lieutenant-governor of Bengal, in succession to Mr. Halliday, who retired on the 1st of May. The provinces subject to the lieutenant-governor of Bengal have been described in a previous report. They comprise Bengal, Behar, Orissa, Assam, Cachar, the Cossyah Hills, Arracan, the Chota Nagpore territory, and the part of Sikhim attached to Darjeeling. They contain 253,000

[119]

square miles, with a population moderately estimated at 40,000,000. They produce one-third of the gross revenue of our Indian empire. They contain a much larger number of European British subjects employed in agriculture, commerce, and manufactures than all the rest of India put together. The native inhabitants of these provinces consist of various races, differing widely from each other in language, manners, and religion; differing more widely still in social position and intellectual advancement. Some are sunk in barbarism, others are far advanced in civilization. The laws by which so numerous and so diverse a population are kept in order are for the most part framed with the design of suiting the varied condition of the people. The rude tribe of Nagas, Coles, and Sonthals, were not wholly left to themselves, but governed more by the action of the magistrate than by the formal procedure of the law. But the growth of wealth and the operations of commerce require to be protected by laws settled and well defined; and, accordingly, for the rich provinces of Bengal, Behar, and Orissa, is provided a body of laws based upon the principles of English jurisprudence. These provinces, from being subject to the regulations and acts of the legislature, are called regulation provinces; those provinces, on the contrary, which, from being inhabited by people in a less advanced state of civilization, are exempted from the operation of the regular acts of the legislature, are called non-regulation provinces.

Civil Justice.—The past year has been very prolific in litigation: 105,585 suits were instituted in the civil courts. This number exhibits an excess of 16,025 suits over the number instituted in the preceding year. The chief cause of this increase is remarkable.

In July, 1859, the whole system of civil procedure, a cumbrous system of written complaints, replies, replications, and rejoinders was done away with, and a simple and well-devised code of procedure was substituted in its stead, whereby suitors are enabled to obtain a speedy as well as a just decision of their suits. Framed with this object, the new law prohibits all written pleadings, though each party, if he pleases, is permitted to file a written statement of his case; the issues are then laid down, a day is fixed for trial, and on the day fixed, if possible, a decision is pronounced. And as an extra safeguard against chicanery and fraud, no complaint is admitted without verification; every plaintiff, when presenting his petition, is required to declare that, to the best of his information and belief, the allegations contained in the petition are true, and a false averment subjects the delinquent to the penalties attached to the crime of perjury. The novelty of these provisions excited apprehension in the native mind, and on this account a large number of suitors anticipated the operation of the new law by hastening to institute their cases before the old system had expired. In this way the great increase in the number of suits instituted is accounted for.

The following statement will exhibit at a glance the different descriptions of suits which were instituted during the year:—Suits connected with land rent, 20,654; otherwise connected with land, 11,347; connected with wages, debts, &c., 70,003; connected with caste, religion, &c., 503; connected with indigo, sugar, silk, &c., 3,078: total, 105,585. Nearly a third of the suits instituted are more or less connected with land, and of these again nearly two-thirds are suits for rent. The number of tenures into which estates in Bengal are divided and sub-divided, accounts for much litigation

under this head. There are so many to pay rent and so many to receive it, that it is natural to expect that there should be many defaulters. Disputes regarding the enhancement of rent have also been a fruitful source of litigation. The increased rates at which all sorts of productions are now selling in the market have greatly improved the ryot's condition, and have led to the natural desire on the part of the landlord to share in the prosperity of his tenant.

It is somewhat remarkable that two-thirds of this class of suits were brought in four districts of Eastern Bengal, while in the suburban districts scarcely any were instituted; in the 24-Pergunnahs only two.

There are no returns, unfortunately, to show the average value of the suits instituted during the year. The average duration of the suits varied according to the court before which they were instituted. In the moonsiffs' court, the average duration was five months and eleven days; in the zillah courts of the judges it was six months and eleven days; while before the court of Sudder Dewanny Adawlut suits were pending on an average for one year and ten days. These results are not satisfactory, but it is hoped that under the new civil code there will be no needless delay in the decision of the suits, as the forms of procedure have been especially framed to ensure despatch. In the non-regulation provinces 17,057 suits were instituted during the year. It is to be regretted that here again there are no returns to show the average value of the suits. It would have been interesting to have contrasted the average value of the suits instituted in the regulation provinces, with the average value of the suits instituted in the non-regulation provinces. Some idea might thus have been formed of the comparative wealth of the one as contrasted with the comparative poverty of the other.

The following statement shows in what way the cases decided on their merits were disposed of:—Result of original suits in favour of the plaintiffs—In regulation provinces, 40,764; in non-regulation provinces, 7,193. Result of original suits in favour of defendants—In regulation provinces, 20,441; in non-regulation provinces, 719.

The small cause court of Calcutta is the only court of its kind within the jurisdiction of the Government of Bengal. It is empowered to decide suits in which the property under litigation does not exceed 500 rupees. The value of such an institution, in a large commercial city like Calcutta, is fully appreciated by all classes of the community. During the past year 32,287 cases were instituted in the court, and out of this number 25,835 were brought by natives. The amount of property under litigation was 9,35,003 rupees, and it is somewhat remarkable that half the number of suits were brought for sums under 10 rupees. Of the cases decided upon their merits, 13,657 were given in favour of the plaintiffs, and 1,617 in favour of the defendants. The court was, in the year under report, a self-supporting one, that is to say, the salaries of the judges and the expenses of the establishment did not exceed the fees levied upon the unsuccessful suitors. The total amount realised last year by fees and fines amounted to the large sum of 1,32,144 rupees, while the expenses of the court amounted to 1,04,139 rupees, leaving a balance of 28,005 rupees at the credit of Government.

Criminal Justice.—The administration of criminal justice is certainly improving, but still it is not as efficient as Government could desire. During the past year 36,369 persons were acquitted, while 67,910 persons

[121]

were either committed to the session or convicted by the magistrates. Out of the latter number, 32 were capitally condemned; 4 were imprisoned for life; 203 were transported; and the remainder were either fined or sentenced to various terms of imprisonment.

The total number of crimes reported to have been committed during the year was 121,370. But in this calculation are included not only petty assaults, but miscellaneous offences of every description, which belong rather to civil than criminal statistics. The following statement will exhibit the ratio of crime to population:—In 1858-59 there were 120,712 offences in a population of 38,343,474, or 1 offence to 318 persons. In 1859-60 there were 121,370 offences in a population of 38,402,965, or 1 offence to 311 persons.

These returns must be considered favourable when it is remembered how few of these offences are really of a heinous nature. Of offences against the person of the highest degree of atrocity, such as murder, wounding with attempt to kill, suspicion of murder, and attempt at murder, only 600 cases are ascertained to have occurred; and of offences against property, committed with violence, only 1,606 cases were reported during the year.

Among other offences described, the following arose from the prevalent belief in witchcraft.

To believe in the supernatural, to attribute the visitations of Providence, or the accidents of life, to the evil eye of a malicious neighbour, to trace in the murrain and the pestilence the indubitable hand of the sorcerer and the witch, are the natural effects of the ignorance and depravity of an illiterate people. The Coles share in this belief of witchcraft, and during the temporary suspension of authority in the political troubles of 1857, they seized the opportunity of wreaking their vengeance upon the whole wizard race. For among the Coles witchcraft is considered an hereditary taint, and not only the reputed wizard, but every one in whose veins the wizard's blood can be traced, is regarded as a fit object for destruction. When, therefore, the temporary suspension of authority had induced the belief that the British power in India had been subverted, the inhabitants of the district appear to have reverted without an effort to those habits which the fear of the English Government had restrained. They were seized with a sudden impulse to put an end to all witches. The destruction of human life which ensued is horrible to contemplate. "Whole families," so writes the magistrate of the district, "were put an end to: in some instances, the destroyers issuing forth in the dark, and commencing with the wizard and his household, went from house to house, and before the morning dawn, they had succeeded in extinguishing, as they supposed, the whole race." In another case, where the "mother was spared, the children were torn from her; in another, the murderers went forth in the morning, and following different paths to make sure of their victims, murdered them almost simultaneously in different localities; and, in one instance, the father, mother and son were decoyed into the jungle, and there put an end to, while the younger children were murdered in the homestead." With the restoration of order these atrocities, of course, ceased; but they show us how strong is the influence of tradition upon the uneducated mind, and how readily a rude people relapse into barbarism when the restraining power of Government is withdrawn.

Police.—In Bengal the police are divided into two distinct classes, the one having a purely military organization, the other being entirely of a

civil character. The former are employed for the suppression of riots and other violent breaches of the peace; the latter are occupied with the execution of criminal process, and with the detection of crime. The military police of Bengal consist of ten battalions of infantry, and three squadrons of cavalry, besides the Sumbulpore battalion and the Kookie levy. These battalions were first organized in 1858. It was then intended that each battalion should consist of a complement of 900 men; but financial considerations have compelled the Government to restrict, for the present, the strength of these battalions to a lower number. At this time they do not average above 700 men. The police are recruited from the hardy races subject to this Government, and different races are kept as much as possible apart.

Prison Discipline.—The number of prisoners put into gaol during the year was 52,068. The number in gaol at the close of the year was 19,021, against 19,399, the number at the close of the year preceding. The whole cost of the year, including charges for establishment, diet, medicines, clothing, and contingencies, amounted to rupees 7,95,109.11.7½, showing a decrease, in the general gaol expenditure, as compared with the previous year, of rupees 88,809-13-8.

The average cost of each prisoner was rupees 41.13.5, viz., rations, rupees 23.14.11; fixed establishment, rupees 7.3.10; extra establishment, rupees 3.3.11; European medicines, annas 3.6; bazaar medicines, annas 3.10; sick diet, annas 5.5; hospital furniture, annas 1.1; clothing (including bedding and blankets), rupees 3.5.1; contingencies (including stationery), rupees 2.8.1; additions, alterations, and repairs, annas 11.9: total, rupees 41.13.5; or, calculated upon the average number of prisoners in custody, of rupees 33,156.4.5.

The cost of food and all necessaries was as high as during the previous year, so that the reduction has been effected by the practice of a better economy, and the introduction of a better system of purchasing food in a larger number of gaols. There is a difference in the cost of prisoners in different gaols, while in Cuttack the cost of each prisoner in the year came to rupees 25.15.9, in Maldah it rose to as much as rupees 74.5.4. These fluctuations are partly due to differences in the cost of food, clothing, &c., in different provinces, partly to the greater comparative cost of guarding small gaols, and partly to more economical management in one gaol than in another.

The following statement shows the disposal of the 16,009 prisoners, who were sentenced to labour during the year 1859-60:—Inefficient, from age or disease, 3,459; employed as gaol servants, 1,995; employed on station roads, &c., 1,170; employed on miscellaneous works, inside or near the gaol, 2,241; employed by the department of public works or other departments, 3,304½; employed on ordinary gaol manufactures, 6,673½; employed on printing at the Alipore Gaol Press, 140: total, 16,009½. Of the prisoners admitted into gaol during the year, the following were fairly educated for their position in life, viz.:—males, 904; females, nil. The following could only read and write, viz.:—males, 2,553; females, 1; total, 2,554: and the following were altogether ignorant and uneducated:—males, 47,258; females, 1,352: total, 48,610. The educated were, therefore, in the proportion of 1.73 per cent., the partially instructed to 4.90 per cent., and the entirely ignorant of 93.36 per cent. of the persons accused of crime during the year 1859-60. In the prisons themselves, the only education attempted

is the teaching of useful handicrafts to the majority of those sentenced to labour.

Revenue.—The revenue accounts show the following results as compared with previous years :—

YEARS.			Demand.	Collections.	Remissions.	Balances.
			Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1844-45	401,41,269	352,58,183	5,90,661	42,92,425
1849-50	383,43,540	346,44,912	5,12,752	31,85,876
1854-55	407,80,133	370,62,148	2,35,506	34,82,477
1858-59	409,45,048	374,17,000	1,91,866	33,36,183
1859-60	412,09,352	377,35,231	2,47,998	32,27,023

The aggregate receipts and charges of the Opium Department in the year 1859-60 amounted to 429,67,438 rupees receipts, 66,14,575 charges, leaving a net revenue of 363,52,863 rupees. Since 1855 there has been a considerable falling off in the cultivation of the poppy; and, to check any further decrease, it has been found necessary, during the past year, to raise the price of opium from rupees 3.4 to 4 rupees a seer. The attention of the Lieutenant-Governor was first attracted to the subject of the opium cultivation by a report from the Board of Revenue in September, 1859. In their report the Board reviewed the past and present condition of the cultivation, and traced the effect of the restrictive measures which Government had adopted since 1848, in consequence of the enormous extension of the cultivation. The out-turn of that year was 36,000 chests; and, as it was considered that 36,000 chests would be an ample provision for future years, any further extension of the cultivation was strictly prohibited. In 1850 the restriction on the cultivation was withdrawn, and the price paid to the cultivators was reduced from rupees 3.12 to rupees 3.8 a seer. This reduction appears at that time to have been judicious. At any rate, it had no injurious effect upon the cultivation, as the memorandum of the quantity of opium brought to sale in the following years will show.* The large increase in the number of chests brought to sale naturally produced a considerable decrease in the price. In 1848, with an out-turn of 36,000 chests, the price obtained was 1,000 rupees; but in 1854, with an out-turn of 48,319 chests, the price fell to 760 rupees a chest. To check any further extension of the poppy cultivation, it was determined still further to reduce the price paid to the cultivator from rupees 3.8 to rupees 3.4 a seer. This reduction was followed by an immediate decrease in the cultivation. The statement† shows that between 1855 and 1858 the number of chests of opium sent down for sale fell off from 53,319 to 32,686, while last year's provision was only 27,000, and for the present year there are only 21,366 chests to be brought forward for sale.

The opium agent for Behar attributed this falling off in the poppy cultivation to the great rise which had taken place in the wages of labour, and in the price of cereals, oil-seeds, and other products. It would seem from the annexed memorandum of the agent, that there had been a general

* 1852	33,561 chests.
1853	39,463 "
1854	48,319 "
1855	53,319 "

[124]

† 1855	53,319 chests.
1856	41,492 "
1857	43,902 "
1858	32,686 "

increase in prices of 100 per cent. since the year 1855, in which the last reduction in the price of opium took place.*

The agent was, however, of opinion, that, even at the existing rates, those cultivators who could employ their women and children in the work would still continue the cultivation, as it enabled them to utilize the whole amount of the labour at their command, part of which would otherwise lie idle; but that the Rajpoots, Brahmins, and other classes, who were unable to employ their women in the fields, and were dependent upon hired labourers, would secede from the cultivation, until the wages of labour should fall. The Board of Revenue, in submitting this report of the agent, proposed, as a means of arresting the decay of the opium cultivation, to revert to the former rate of rupees 3.8 a seer. This proposal the Lieutenant-Governor at once sanctioned; but at the same time expressed his doubts whether the increase was sufficient to place the profits on the cultivation of opium on a par with the profit obtainable from the cultivation of other crops. A subsequent report, which the Revenue Board were requested to submit, proved the correctness of these surmises.

The rise from rupees 3.4 to rupees 3.8 a seer, in the price offered for opium, had no perceptible effect on the cultivation, and a further increase of 4 annas per seer was proposed by the Board. This increase was, in the Lieutenant-Governor's opinion, insufficient, and in forwarding the correspondence to the Supreme Government, he recommended that the price should be raised to at least 4 rupees a seer. The Supreme Government concurred in the opinion of the Lieutenant-Governor, and the price of opium has been raised to 4 rupees a seer, and the cultivators have been assured that no reduction will be made for the next three seasons. It is of course impossible to say at present what the effect of this increase will be; but, in the meantime, no exertions will be spared to place this most important branch of the revenue upon a more satisfactory footing.

The risk incurred by maintaining the present excessive price of opium (caused by the supply being unequal to the demand), of encouraging the growth of poppy in China and elsewhere, is apparent.

Salt.—The following table exhibits the result of the operations of the Salt Department during the year under report, as compared with the results of previous years:—In 1859-60 the proceeds of sale of Government salt were, rupees 128,79,779.5.4; the Customs duty on imported salt, rupees 68,27,573.10.3; the Excise duty on home salt, rupees 1,31,824.10; and miscellaneous receipts in the Salt Department, rupees 2,44,308.13.7 :

* Memorandum of the average Increase in the Price of certain Articles of Consumption in the Behar Opium Agency.

Articles.	Per Rupee in 1855-56.			Per Rupee in 1858-59.		
	Mds.	Seers.	Chts.	Mds.	Seers.	Chts.
Tobacco	0	20	0	0	10	0
Mustard	0	30	0	0	15	0
Linseed	1	0	0	0	16	0
Potatoes	2	20	0	1	10	0
Oats	1	15	0	0	25	0
Wheat	0	30	0	0	16	0
Barley	1	10	0	0	20	0
Grain	1	0	0	0	22	0
Goor	0	35	0	0	20	0

making a total of receipts of rupees 200,83,486.7.2; deduct charges in Salt Department, rupees 36,64,071.15.8; leaves a balance of rupees 164,19,414.7.5; and deducting the proportion of Customs charges debitable to the Customs duty levied on salt, rupees 1,78,821; leaves a net balance of rupees 162,40,593.7.3.

Several important measures connected with the administration of the Salt Department have come into operation during the past year. The great pressure which the mutiny produced upon the finances compelled the Government of India to seek an addition to the public revenues by increased taxation; and an increase of eight annas a maund in the duty upon salt was considered as one of the least objectionable forms by which an additional revenue could be levied. No tax presses so lightly upon the community as the salt tax, and no tax is more easily collected. Salt is the only article which has experienced no fluctuation in price, while the price of grain and country products generally has risen 30 or 40 per cent., or more; and so long, therefore, as the prevailing prosperity and high prices continue, there is no reason for supposing that the increase of the duty will be followed by a proportionate decrease of consumption. The enhanced duty of three rupees a maund, instead of rupees 2.8 a maund, came into operation on the 21st of last December.

Education.—By the latest returns received, there are at present, in the Lower Provinces, 289 colleges and schools maintained by Government, attended by 18,387 scholars; and 303 aided schools, attended by 21,979 scholars, thus giving a grand total of 592 schools and 40,366 scholars. Of female schools there are at present in operation only 10, containing about 367 children. The number of colleges and schools under the control of, and in connection with, the late Council of Education, on the 27th January, 1855, when the department was made over to the Director of Public Instruction, was 147, and the number of scholars attending them amounted to about 12,865, showing an increase in the total number of schools in operation of 445, and an increase in the total number of scholars for the year ending 30th April, 1859, as compared with the year ending 31st December, 1854, of 27,501.

The gross annual expenditure incurred by the State, for the purposes of education in Bengal, for the year 1854-5, was rupees 6,88,692.1.7, and for the year 1858-9, rupees 10,32,021.5.9, showing an increase of expenditure amounting to rupees 3,43,329.4.2.

Chapter IX. refers to the administration of the **MADRAS PRESIDENCY**, during the year 1859-60.

Shortly before the close of the year 1858-59, Sir C. Trevelyan succeeded Lord Harris in the Government of the Madras Presidency, and within a few weeks of the close of the year forming the subject of the present Report, his Excellency Sir Henry Ward replaced Sir Charles Trevelyan.

Civil Justice.—During the last five years the number of suits instituted has advanced from 105,577 in 1855 to 163,269 in 1859, i. e. 64 per cent.; the increase having been at the rate of from 15,000 to 20,000 a year, excepting only the eventful year 1857, in which it was but little more than 5,000. The additional suits instituted during the last year appeared to have been mainly connected with debts, wages, and the like.

The only augmentation to the Judicial Department that has taken place during the same period consists in the creation of five new district moonsiff's courts, and the temporary appointment of three principal sudder ameen.

In 1855 and 1856 there was one assistant judge, and in 1857 two of these judicatories; but after that period their courts were abolished. There were, therefore, as an unavoidable consequence, no less than 88,132 original suits remaining unadjudicated at the close of the year under review, being 24,397 in excess of the balance of the previous year. The value of the matter in dispute in these undecided suits amounted to (2,14,58,221 rupees) two crores, fourteen lakhs, fifty-eight thousand two hundred and twenty-one rupees.

Criminal Justice.—Including those under trial at the close of the previous year, there were 230,551 persons brought before the police and magistracy, charged with petty offences. Deducting 83,597 persons, or 37 per cent., who were released upon the charges preferred against them being compromised, and 949, who were under trial at the close of the year, it appears that about 42 per cent. of those whose cases were duly investigated were convicted, and 58 per cent. were acquitted. Making allowance for the haste in which accusations of assault, affray, and other petty offences are not unfrequently made, it is not surprising that the ratio of convictions should be so small. Of the whole number of persons summoned, 8 per cent. appeared before the village police, 89 per cent. before the district police, and 3 per cent. before the magistracy.

A remarkable decrease is observable in the number of persons charged with crimes and misdemeanors, of whom there were 3,955, or 14 per cent., fewer than in the previous year. The total number accused was 24,660. Of these 15,790, or 64 per cent., were discharged by the police and magistracy, leaving 8,870 persons, who were put upon their trial. These were respectively dealt with by the magistracy under their extended powers, the subordinate judges, the principal and moofy sudder ameens, the sessions courts, and the Fouzdary Adawlut, according to the nature of their crimes.

These trials resulted in the conviction of 42 per cent., the release of about 52 per cent., and the holding to security of 6 per cent. of the persons tried. Of the offenders convicted by the Fouzdary Adawlut, 51 were sentenced to be hanged and 33 to be transported for life. The number of capital sentences has varied very little for the last five years. The sentences of transportation were considerably fewer last year than in previous years.

Revenue.—Between 1855-56 and 1859-60, the total revenue has risen from 4,683,480*l.* to 5,495,176*l.*, or by upwards of three-quarters of a million sterling. The increase in the year under report—the last of the series—has been 85,551*l.* In reality, however, the increase is greater, because, as explained in last year's report, a change in the mode of bringing the collections to account caused the inclusion in the revenue of 1858-59 of the receipts of a longer period than had been previously customary. The revenue of the year 1859-60 consequently appears lower than it is in reality, from its being thus compared with that of a year, in the accounts of which, by a mere change of system, the receipts of 12½ months are credited.

The salt revenue shows an increase of 4,34,450 rupees over the previous year. On the 19th August, 1859, the monopoly price of salt was raised from one rupee to one rupee two annas per Indian maund of 82½ lbs. The prime cost of the article being on an average only two annas per maund, or 4½*d.* per cwt., the monopoly duty amounts to a little under 2*s.* 9*d.* per cwt.

The season was extremely unfavourable for manufacture in the districts of Tanjore and South Arcot, and from the pans having also been seriously injured by severe floods, the stocks were so reduced that it became necessary to import from other places, and to restrict the sales in the last-named province. But for this, the increase of revenue would have been considerably larger. In Malabar and Canara also extreme difficulty was experienced in procuring salt, owing to scarcity of the article in Bombay and Goa, Malabar being wholly, and Canara partially, dependent on foreign sources of supply.

Land Tenure.—The principle of granting land on freehold tenure, by permitting the redemption of the land tax, has been introduced to the following extent:—

1. Lands now occupied wholly or in part by buildings, and paying quit-rent to Government, may, at the option of the owner, be converted into freeholds by payment of a sum equal to twenty times the annual quit-rent paid at the time of conversion.

2. Lands hereafter required for building purposes are to be sold by auction at an upset price of twenty times their yearly quit-rent or tax, and are thereafter to be held by the purchaser on freehold tenure.

3. Lands on the Neilgherries, Shevaroy, and Pulney Hills, and coffee lands in the Wynaad talook of Malabar, are similarly treated, except that the upset price of building sites on the hill tracts has been specially fixed at 10 rupees, or 1*½* per acre.

4. Private lands subject to quit-rent in the town and suburbs of Madras may be converted into freeholds on the same terms, viz., 20 years' purchase of the quit-rent.

5. For town lands not liable to quit-rent, freehold titles are granted without payment, on good *prima facie* evidence of title being afforded.

6. Owners of lands coming within the scope of the rules, who are unable or unwilling to redeem their quit-rent, can obtain permanent title-deeds, with a reservation of the quit-rent and the option of hereafter converting their lands into freeholds.

7. The liability of landowners to payments for municipal or other local purposes, and for the moturphur, is not affected by the conversion into freeholds.

In all the above cases title-deeds are granted under the seal of Government.

By a more recent order, on the Neilgherries and Shervaroys, allotments of land for coffee and farming are also sold without any upset price, subject to an annual quit-rent of one rupee per acre, with the power of conversion into freeholds at 20 years' purchase of the quit-rent.

The assessment on coffee lands in Wynaad has also been fixed at two rupees per acre on the area actually under coffee; no tax, however, being levied until the plants are two years old. It is open to planters to make proposals for a fixed assessment over their entire estates. Land planted with any other crop than coffee pays the usual local assessment. The export duty on coffee, it may be remarked, has been abolished by Act X. of 1860.

Chapter X. comprises the report on the administration of the PRESIDENCY of BOMBAY.

Civil Justice.—The number of original suits and appeals instituted in 1859 was as follows:—Moonsiffs', 59,659 original suits, and no appeals;

[128]

sudder ameens', 2,182 suits, and no appeals; principal sudder ameens', 6,223 suits, and 115 appeals; and judges', 400 suits, and 5,588 appeals: making a total of 68,464 suits, and 5,703 appeals; or a grand total of 74,167, against 45,750 the previous year. The average duration of suits was—moonsiffs', 3 months and 3 days; sudder ameens', 4 months 6 days; principal sudder ameens', 4 months 7 days; and judges', 6 months 7 days.

Criminal Justice.—There were for trial during the year 36,767 cases, and 72,447 persons. Of this number 35,250 were convicted, 3,699 committed for trial before the sessions court, and 29,844 acquitted, the latter forming 43·38 per cent. of the total number tried.

During the mutiny about 19,217 prisoners escaped from gaol. Of this number 4,962 are once more in custody; of these 1,183 surrendered themselves, and 3,779 were recaptured, so that about 14,267 of these men are still at large. It is generally supposed that a large portion of those liberated by the mutineers joined their ranks, and were either killed or died of want and exposure. It is therefore most probable that fully one-half of those still alive are again in confinement; 124 men have escaped from gaol within the year, of whom 62, or exactly one-half, have been recaptured.

As order was restored, the gaols that were not completely destroyed or occupied by the military, were very soon repaired, and placed on their former footing. Where the old gaols were not available, temporary places of confinement were selected; but, with the restoration of the gaols, the old custom of employing the prisoners on out-door labour was reintroduced, and, with the exception of the Agra, Meerut, and Allahabad central prisons, scarcely a vestige of the discipline that obtained antecedent to the mutiny remained. However, by the end of 1858, these prisons were so far restored to their former state of efficiency as to admit of the transfer of all the long-term prisoners from the neighbouring districts, and upwards of 3,000 were placed under strict discipline; and had the Bareilly central prison not been appropriated by the military, a circumstance in respect to prison discipline and economy much to be regretted, it also would have been reoccupied as a gaol; and thus four out of the six central prisons, commenced prior to 1857, would again, in the short space of a few months, have been in complete operation.

Prison education has not received very marked attention since the restoration of order. Under the lax discipline in the district gaols, already noticed, satisfactory results are hopeless; but there are classes in the central prisons for the instruction of young men and boys, and the system is gradually being extended to all the inmates. Out of 13,015 prisoners in confinement in the gaols of these provinces at the close of the year, only 956 could read and write: 40 of these had learnt these arts since their conviction.

The influence of complete incarceration, with hard labour, in deterring from crime, though one of the first objects, is not the only advantage likely to arise from the intramural employment of criminals in industrial manufactures. It is to be hoped that many of the released prisoners will take back to their native villages something of the knowledge of handicrafts acquired during their incarceration, and thus be the means, in some measure, of diffusing new ideas, and introducing new kinds of work, and even new kinds of machinery and its advantages, in distant parts of the country, where no new idea has penetrated for ages. Moreover, there can be no doubt that the concentration of prisoners in central prisons, while it

secures a more perfect discipline, and a more effective punishment of the criminal, leads to a very large saving of expenditure.

The ratio of mortality—viz., 10·73 per cent., which was higher than that of former years, may fairly be attributed to the wretched state of many of the prisoners at the time of admission. During the mutiny, not only the rebels and those who followed their fortunes, but a great many of the classes that fill our gaols, were reduced to the most miserable condition, from exposure and want; and since that time a large portion of the prisoners are admitted with their general health at the lowest possible ebb, and they consequently fall a ready prey to any prevailing sickness, and suffer besides from the reaction that supervenes on long-continued hardships. Many of the deaths were also aged and infirm subjects at the time of imprisonment. Want of proper accommodation, too, owing to several of the gaols having been destroyed or occupied by the military, and the prisoners consequently having been confined in old tombs, serais, and other places unadapted for the purpose, has, doubtless, tended to increase the mortality. The best proof that the deaths are really ascribable to the above causes, is the proportion of deaths to sick—viz., 6·71 per cent.

The daily average number of prisoners throughout the year was 13,865, and the total expenditure, rupees 6,41,933.12.3, or rupees 46.4.9 per annum for each prisoner, which is a higher ratio per head than in former years. This, however, is due to the enhanced price of provisions, and to the whole cost of permanent establishment, guarding, repairs of buildings, transit charges of a much larger number of transported convicts, &c., having been debited to a smaller number of prisoners. These expenses would have been the same had the number of prisoners been 22,011, the average of the three years immediately preceding the mutiny. The higher rates of pay, too, of the military police, must be taken into consideration; the excess of expenditure arising from this cause, on the aggregate number of men employed, amounts to the large sum of 52,752 rupees. As many of the gaols were unavailable, the old serais, courts, and other native buildings, selected as temporary places of confinement, required strong guards, and this will further help to explain the larger outlay on this account.

The net profits on the sale of manufactured articles during the year were rupees 30,115.11.7, and the value of manufactured goods in store, rupees 18,807.6.9, which may be considered very fair results, seeing that the value of convict labour on clothing and other articles made up for prison use, menial services within the gaols, gaol buildings, and other public works, are not taken into account.

Chapter XI. is the report on the administration of the NORTH-WESTERN PROVINCES.

Chapter XII. is the report on the administration of the PUNJAB TERRITORIES for the year 1859-60.

Civil Justice.—During 1859, peace and order reigned unbroken throughout the Punjab and its dependencies, and the action of the civil courts was uninterrupted.

For the whole territory no less than 138,821 original suits were instituted; and of these 14,327 remained undecided at the end of the year. Excluding from the comparison the divisions of Delhi and Hissar, the returns for which were, in 1858, incomplete, 59,043 additional suits were instituted in 1859. It was very well known that the new rule of limitation, reducing the term from six to three years, would come into play in

November, and that the creditor must previously sue his debtor, or be silent for ever: hence this grand battue of litigation. Moreover, by the proportionate graduation of the cost of law processes, justice—particularly as regards small suits, which form the bulk—had been made much cheaper. And cases of dispossession, more generally excluded than formerly from criminal jurisdiction, had become more numerous in the civil courts. Much despatch has been used in disposing of this large mass of work. The trials, on an average, were over in 23 days. About one-third of the cases were got rid of by confession of judgment by defendants. About 40 per cent. were decreed in full; 14 per cent. given in favour of defendants; 19 per cent. arranged by razeenamah; 7 per cent. dismissed in default and non-suited. The tehseldars tried about two-fifths of the cases decided. The average value of each suit was nearly 61 rupees. It is remarkable that the value of suits is less by one-half than in 1858. The percentage of costs, rupees 5.3.5. About 8 per cent. of the decisions were given by arbitrators. The new rule regarding the compulsory registration of certain descriptions of bonds has increased the number annually registered from 225 to 1,845; but these are still deeds connected with real property, and no disposition is shown to register simple contracts. It is noticeable, that of decrees given only one-third are executed by means of the courts: the remainder are carried out by the parties themselves. This is considered advantageous, and is employed as an argument against abolishing process fees in the execution of decrees.

Criminal Justice.—The year 1859 is the first for which statistics of crime, embracing the Punjab and its dependencies, are forthcoming. They show that, in all, 46,918 crimes were reported, being one offence to 324 persons. Of these, 23,692, or one to 641 persons, are classed as heinous, and 23,226 as minor. Leaving out the Delhi and Hissar divisions (the returns for which, for 1858, were not complete), it is shown that there was an increase of 658 heinous, and a decrease of 303 minor offences. Murders were more numerous by 11; in the Peshawur district alone, 43 were committed. No case of thuggee was reported; and robberies of all kinds, attended with murder, decreased. But cases of wounding, with intent to murder, rose by 17, principally in the Peshawur district. Crimes of the second degree of atrocity also somewhat increased. Culpable homicides were more frequent by 11 cases. Aggravated robberies rose in number, though in a less degree. There were 38 additional cases of aggravated assault; 10 of administering poisonous drugs; 41 of rape; 5 of incest; and 26 of unnatural crime. Amongst crimes of the third degree of atrocity, arson increased by 30 cases; simple dacoities by 7; simple thefts were about the same as in 1858; the ratio of cattle thefts to other crimes increased; highway robberies diminished by 10, and burglaries by 196. In the fourth class of heinous crimes there was an addition of 390 cases under the head of "adultery;" but formerly many of these cases were classed under the denomination of "abduction." Now, owing to a change in the law, which admits of their prosecution in the district criminal courts, charges of adultery are more frequent. Cases of coining and forgery have considerably fallen off. Minor offences call for no remark; there is no noticeable variation in number.

Trade Tax.—Pending the perfection of the comprehensive financial measures of the Legislative Council, and in consideration of the deficiency of specie to which the inland situation of the Punjab renders its administration liable, the Viceroy sanctioned the imposition of certain taxes proposed by

the Lieutenant-Governor. The foundation of these was the scale of licence duties originally proposed in the Legislative Council, and which in effect amounted to an income-tax of 3 per cent. on all incomes below 2,000 rupees. In the assessment of these duties, a general apprehension was found to pervade the principal cities of the inquisition necessary to the computation of the income of individuals, and the leading city of Umritsur offered to contribute to the State a sum equivalent to that which might be estimated to accrue from the income-tax, by trebling the town duties already levied for municipal purposes, rather than submit to the appraisement of private fortunes. At the time no general fiscal policy had been laid down, and in the Punjab it was considered of greater importance to raise the revenue without delay, and without creating discontent, than according to the theoretical canons of taxation. The Lieutenant-Governor, therefore, empowered the local authorities to allow the large cities to compound for the income-tax by raising an equal revenue through the town duties. In petty boroughs and villages the income-tax took effect. In some districts, especially in the Mooltan division, town duties were rarely levied, and the whole non-agricultural population was made to contribute at the rate of 3 per cent. on their incomes, without claiming for the scheme any refined equality, or universal applicability; in practice it has certainly the merits of being well adapted to the people concerned, of being submitted to willingly and without complaint, and of extreme cheapness of collection. It has also had the effect of preparing the minds of the people for the general measures of the Legislature. Many of the jageerdars, for instance, will now rather gain than lose by the income-tax; and the apprehensions of the townspeople must have been much diminished by the treatment of their brethren in the villages. The town duties have not proved to have been pitched so high as to interfere with trade. The yield of these taxes for six months has been rupees 9,75,807.

Political.—During the past year our friendly relations with the Ameer of Cabul have been undisturbed. His Highness's forces, under the command of his son, Mahomed Afzul Khan, have conquered the neighbouring State of Koondooz, and procured the submission of Budukshan, thus advancing the Afghan frontier to the river Oxus. Captain James, Commissioner of Peshawur, gives the following account of Koondooz:—

About two centuries ago the country north of the Oxus and east of Bokhara was divided into numerous independent Ozbek States, one of the principal of which was that of Kirari, under a chief named Morad Bég, of the Kutaghan tribe of Ozbeks. His son, Mahomed Khan Bég, being driven out of that State by the King of Bokhara, crossed the Oxus, and seized possession of Huzrut Imam, Talikhan, and Koondooz, founding the State of that name, which, with some intervals of dispossession, has remained in the hands of his descendants to the present day. In 1740, Huzrut Bég, of the same family, drove the ruling chief into the eastern hills, and was confirmed in the chiefship of Koondooz by Nadir Shah, to whom he submitted himself at Bulkh. Shortly afterwards the State of Koondooz was annexed by Ahmed Shah Dorraneé, and formed part of the Afghan Government of Bulkh. In 1785, an Ozbek chief, named Kooat Khan, who had received from Tymoore Shah the Government of Narin, a district in Koondooz, to the south-east of the city of that name, revolted from the Afghan yoke, and not only assumed the chiefship of Koondooz, but spread his conquests over Budukshan and some of the dependencies of Bulkh. When Tymoore, in 1789, marched against Bokhara, he received the nominal submission of Kooat Khan, but this was ignored on the return of the former to Cabul. Many changes followed, and, finally, in 1815, Mahomed Morad Bég, a lineal descendant of the chief of the same name formerly mentioned, successfully asserted the supremacy of his family; and under him the Koondooz State attained its highest prosperity, for he included in his dominions Budukshan, Bulkh, some districts to the north of the Oxus, and all the country between that river and the Hindoo Koosh. This was the ruler with whom our officers were acquainted during our intercourse with Toorkistan. He seems to

have been a noted marauder, devoting his life to schemes of plunder and annexation. He would bring the people of the countries he conquered to the unhealthy swamps of the Oxus, where they died in thousands, their places being soon taken by others. Mahomed Morad Bég was succeeded, some few years ago, by his son, the present ruler, Attaleek Khan, for whom no great fear or respect is entertained. He has gradually lost the chief part of his father's possessions; those to the west having fallen again to the Afghan Governor of Bulkli, whilst Budukshan and the trans-Oxus States have regained their independence. His present dominions comprise only the three districts of Koondooz, Huzrut, Imam, and Talikhan. The population consists of Ozbeks and Tajiks. The former are chiefly of the Kutaghan tribe, and they occupy the northern part of the province, including the towns of Koondooz, Huzrut, Imam, and Talikhan. The Tajiks are generally supposed to be of Persian origin, and were in possession of the country before the Ozbek conquest; they still maintain their independence in some of the neighbouring districts, as Chitral, Darwaz, &c., but in Koondooz they occupy only the southern portion towards the Hindoo Koosh, including Kaghlan and Anderah, Khost, and Fering. They naturally hate their Afghan rulers, and they have a special grievance in the cruel perseverance displayed by the late Meer in transplanting colonies of them to the pestilential fens of the Oxus. Besides the above races there are several nomad tribes, who visit parts of the province periodically with their flocks; and the population altogether is estimated at 200,000. The Meer derives his revenue partly from the produce of agriculture and partly from taxes on pasture. Both are taken in kind; the former at the rate of one-tenth, the latter at one-fiftieth of the stock annually. The sheep of the country are celebrated, being the broad-tailed species of Doombah. Agriculture is not extensive, except in the proximity of the river. Formerly, the ruler of Koondooz collected transit duties on the road from Cabul to Bokhara, but this is now within the Afghan border; the only other items remaining to him being a house-tax arbitrarily assessed, and a tax on the gold washings of the streams. The whole of his income may amount to two lakhs per annum. The force at the disposal of the Meer is the militia of the country, who are nearly all horsemen. Every chief holds his estate or office under a military tenure, and is bound to maintain a certain number of horsemen properly mounted and equipped. He, again, apportions this number amongst the houses under his authority; from five to ten houses being required to furnish and maintain a horseman. Small presents and a share in plunder are the perquisites to which these men look. About three-fourths of this militia are Ozbeks and one-fourth Tajiks: it may number 8,000 in all. The horses are small but good, and notoriously capable of sustaining exertion; they are so reared as to be able to work for several days on the most scanty allowance of food.

Chapter XIII. contains a report on the administration of the PROVINCE of OUDH.

Various circumstances have combined to render the year under review the first in which the administration of the province could be uniformly and consistently carried on in conformity with the scheme enunciated by Government at annexation. The British Government having assumed charge of the province early in 1856, during the year 1856-57 the authorities were occupied in making summary settlements of the land revenue, and organizing the various courts of judicature throughout the province. Under these exceptional circumstances, the results of that year could not, even if they now existed, be made use of for purposes of comparison with those of the present. Just at the time, however, that in the ordinary course of events the report on the administration during the first year of British rule would have been submitted to Government, the mutiny of the native army broke out, and British supremacy was for a time overthrown.

The province was subject to British rule during scarcely any portion of 1857-58, and the year 1858-59 was spent in the gradual re-occupation of the several districts, and the re-organization of our courts and establishments. The year under review, however, commenced with brighter auspices. The whole province had been relieved from a state of anarchy and confusion, and restored to peace and tranquillity. Rebellion had been crushed and trodden out, and though the last embers of a futile resistance were still smouldering, this was on the confines and beyond the borders of the province. Thus, with tranquillity universally prevalent, and the summary settlement of the land revenue completed, the executive officers

have been relieved of many of the arduous duties which formerly required so much of their attention, and have been able to devote themselves more energetically to the discharge of their purely judicial duties. The statistical returns, then, for the past year, though useless for purposes of comparison, are of great value, as showing the marked progress that has been made in enforcing a system of regularity and method in the transaction of public business.

The Punjab code is the basis of the civil law of Oude. The rule limiting the institution of suits for debts and simple contracts has been introduced with some modifications. Suits for immovable property are limited to twelve years, suits founded on registered bonds and debts of records to six years, and all ordinary suits for debt and contract to three years. A registration of deed has also been established, and notaries have been appointed. During the year there have been 3,695 regular suits on the files of the different courts, and 3,342 were disposed of. The total value of the property disposed of by deacons was 1,51,72,113.1.5 rupees. The greater portion of the litigation occurs in Lucknow city. There have been several political trials.

The fate of the European fugitives from the several stations has become a matter of history. It is well known that some of our unfortunate countrymen from Seetapore took refuge with Rajah Lonee Singh, of Mithowlee, and others with the Rajah of Dhourerah. It is equally well known that, though some few of the latter contrived to escape, yet the majority of these and all of the former were treacherously given up to the rebel leaders, and taken into Lucknow, where they were brought out and massacred in cold blood, some on one occasion, some on another. The parties to these deeds of treachery, both those who originally gave them up to the rebel leaders at Lucknow, and the rebel leaders who eventually surrendered them to the native army to be murdered, have, during the past year, received the just rewards of their crimes.

The result of the prosecution of Rajah Lonee Singh appeared in the annual report of the preceding year; it need only be added that he died while undergoing his sentence of transportation. The Rajah of Dhourerah, the principal of his advisers, and the most active of his adherents, have also met with punishment on account of a similar crime proportionate to the degrees of their guilt. The Rajah himself, sentenced to imprisonment for nine years, has, in consideration of his youth, received a mitigation of his sentence, and, instead of being treated as a common criminal, has been allowed to reside at Moulmein, under the strict surveillance of the authorities, receiving a small allowance for his subsistence.

While those who may be said to have thus compassed the death of those whom by all laws of hospitality and humanity they were bound to protect, have met with the punishment due to their crimes, those who were more immediately concerned in the murder of these Europeans, by delivering them up to an enraged and revolted soldiery, have not escaped. It is scarcely necessary to repeat that the European prisoners, when brought into Lucknow, were detained in the Kaiserbaugh. On the approach of the relieving force under the late lamented Sir H. Havelock, K.C.B., the first party were made over to the soldiery, and massacred in front of one of the gates of that building. A similar scene occurred when Lord Clyde, with his avenging army, returned to effect the final capture of the city. On these occasions it has been proved that Rajah Jye Lall Sing, an influential

talookdar, and one who devoted himself entirely to the rebel cause, acting as spokesman of the sepoy officers, demanded the execution of the Europeans, and Mummoo Khan, the Begum's paramour, basely gave them up to death when it was within his power to protect them. The former has justly expiated his crime on the gallows: the latter has, however, been sentenced by the judicial commissioner only to transportation for life.

In addition to the above, Rajah Rambuksh Singh, of Doondia Khera, is another of those influential talookdars who lent themselves to evil, and have reaped the consequences. This man it was who led on his retainers to the attack of those few weak and faint Europeans, who, having fled from the massacre at Cawnpore, took refuge in a temple on his estate. All were slaughtered, except Captains Thompson and Delafosse, and two privates, who flung themselves into the Ganges, and were rescued from its waters by the friendly Rajah of Morramow. Rambuksh was apprehended in the city of Benares, and being convicted on the clearest evidence, suffered death on the very scene of his crime.

Besides the above, there have been other cases important, inasmuch as retribution has been exacted for the shedding of European blood, but in which the parties concerned did not hold the same rank and position as in the cases already enumerated. It would be beyond the province, therefore, of such a report as this to enter at any length into their details; suffice it to say that in two cases eleven persons, residents of villages near the Ganges, have been convicted of taking part in attacks on the boats of the fugitives from Futteghurh. Seven persons concerned in the murders of the late Major Gall, at Roy Bareilly, and Messrs. Block and Stroyan, at Sultanpore, have been convicted, as have been the criminals in two cases of the murder of Christians during the confusion of the outbreak in the city of Lucknow. A minor talookdar and his headman have been convicted of surrendering a Christian fugitive to the Nana. One Mahomedan Moulvee, of talent and education, formerly a servant of the British Government, has been convicted of preaching murder as sanctioned by religion; and another talookdar was found guilty of plundering and maltreating the fugitives from Fyzabad, although he did not actually murder them.

The duty of tracing out and prosecuting the sepoys of massacre regiments, against whom evidence of active participation in the murder of their officers can be procured, has, with the sanction of Government, been entrusted to the assistant superintendent of Thuggee and Dacoity stationed at Lucknow. No great success has attended his operations. The difficulty of obtaining individual proof of guilt can be understood, and the sepoys, as a body, are unwilling to give evidence likely to criminate their brethren in arms. Moreover, owing to the men having systematically enlisted under false names, and given false accounts of their home and calling, it has been found often impossible to trace even those against whom the most convincing proof has been obtained in court. While, then, 217 men have been examined, five only have been committed for trial in this province during the period under review. Five more have been sent to other districts, nearer to the scene of their crimes and the homes of the witnesses to the same. Of the remainder, 192 have been released, and thirteen have died.

The returns of crime committed during the past year cannot be relied on as correct. The salutary effect of corporal punishment as a deterrent has been doubted by many. The season has been very bad for want of rain,

yet the land revenue has been collected without any difficulty. Out of a total demand of 1,03,70,108 rs. 5 as., there was an outstanding demand of only 94,280 rs. 12 as., or 0·90 per cent. There are no customs duties levied in Oude.

The imposition of a tax on trades and professions, though strictly a financial measure, has so important a political bearing, that it may be most properly adverted to under this section. A detailed report on the execution of the measure has been submitted to Government; it will therefore be sufficient to mention here that the principle on which the scheme is based is to take 3 per cent. on incomes, and having roughly estimated the amount thus due from the rateable inhabitants of each village or town, to leave the distribution to the people themselves. In talookas this work has been mainly entrusted to the talookdars, who have zealously co-operated in it, and prevented an undue share of the burden being thrown on the poorer classes to ease the rich. The amount imposed is 11½ lakhs. With the exception of the city of Lucknow no difficulty whatever has been experienced in the distribution of the assessment or in the collection of the tax. The whole has been paid up in Roy Bareilly and in the districts of Pertabgurh, Sultanpore, Lucknow, Oonao, and Fyzabad; the first instalments have been realized. All the commissioners agree in stating that the appeals regarding the tax have been very few, and that those preferred related always to the amount distributed on the individual, not to the nature of the tax. In the city of Lucknow some discontent and recusance have been manifested, though coercive processes have been but very rarely resorted to. The chief commissioner anticipated some difficulty in the city. The wealthy mercantile classes are always those who most object to being called on to contribute to the expense of the State, though they endeavour to conceal their selfishness under their mask of sympathy for the poor. The chief commissioner can confidently assert that, when he submitted his report of the measure, not a murmur had been heard, though the tax had then been partially collected in some districts, and any slight expressions of discontent that have subsequently been manifested in the districts have arisen mainly from the delay in introducing a similar system of taxation in the North-Western Provinces. The people of Oude very naturally did not like to see their neighbours better off than themselves, and did not believe our assurances that their turn would come; and they hoped that by this agitation they would intimidate the Government from persevering in its measure. The average per head is only 2 rs. 4 as.

The population of Oude has been estimated at between 6,000,000 and 7,000,000. The report upon the administration of Hyderabad has nothing of general interest, except the fact that experiments have been made with a view of introducing exotic cotton, but hitherto without success.

The report on the Straits Settlements has the following particulars on population and agriculture:—

At all three stations there has been an increase in the numbers of the European and Eurasian residents; but at Singapore and Penang the great increase has taken place amongst the Chinese settlers, whose numbers are annually recruited by the emigrants arriving in the numerous junks trading with the Eastern Archipelago. At Singapore, this increase, within the last ten years, may be estimated at about 22,000, and at Penang (including Province Wellesley) at 12,000. There is still, at both places, a fearful numerical disproportion between the sexes; at Singapore, there being little

more than 3,000, and at Penang 9,000 females to 40,000 and 27,000 males respectively. At Malacca the number of the Chinese inhabitants has slightly diminished of late years; this may be attributed to the exodus of the miners into the neighbouring native states: the disparity between the sexes is not so great as at the other stations, there being 3,000 females to 7,000 males. Here, however, as well as at Penang, amongst the former, doubtless, many half-castes have been included, as at both places the Chinese have long been settlers, and have intermarried with the Malays. The Malay population appears to remain almost stationary; at Malacca only is there a decided increase, which has occurred chiefly amongst the women, of whom evidently a large number must have come in from the adjoining states.

Connected with this subject little can be recorded; indeed, agriculture does not appear to have obtained much consideration in the Straits.

At Singapore there is but one sugar estate, whilst the nutmeg plantations, having lately suffered considerably from disease, have, in a measure, ceased to receive attention; and the cultivation of pepper and gambier is, by all accounts, decreasing, large tracts of land being often permitted to relapse into a state of nature, the lallang (*gramen caricosum*) rapidly springing up, and concealing all traces of a clearance. This falling off is, in a great measure, attributed to the greater advantages in the way of virgin soil and unlimited license to gamble (the love of which appears innate among the Chinese) enjoyed by the gambier planters in the neighbouring native state of Johore; as respects the former, however, Singapore must still abound in tracts hitherto perfectly uncultivated, and by opening out these tracts by the formation of additional lines of communication throughout the island, an inducement may perhaps be offered to many cultivators to return.

An agricultural and horticultural society has recently been established, and a suitable grant of land having been received from Government, it has been cleared, with a view of its being converted into a public garden. The society is yet in its infancy, but it is hoped that through its means agriculture and horticulture may be encouraged, and eventually the dense tracts of jungle now existing be replaced by fields or gardens yielding a plentiful supply of the productions most suitable to the soil and climate.

At Malacca the severe murrain amongst the cattle has proved, during the past year, a serious drawback to agricultural operations, and many of the peasantry have been almost ruined; under any circumstances, however, little success can be expected in improving the agriculture of this settlement, until, by a change in the system now in force, the land may fall into the hands of proprietors possessing sufficient capital to enable them to realize all the advantages to be derived from its fertile soil, which certainly appears well adapted for the growth of all tropical productions.

Both in Penang and Province Wellesley there is much more cultivation than in either of the other stations. The southern district of the province is indeed studded with sugar factories, superintended by European gentlemen, and furnished in many instances with expensive machinery of the newest description; in the northern district there is but one factory, the soil generally not being deemed so well suited to the growth of the sugarcane as in the south. Each factory may be considered as a centre from which civilization, with its attendant advantages, is diffused throughout the neighbourhood. The labourers employed upon the different estates are well paid and otherwise cared for; in every direction the fields are

intersected by small canals for the conveyance, by flat-bottomed boats, of the raw produce to the factory, and subsequently, in the shape of sugar and rum, to its place of shipment for Penang; and the whole, as a scene of well-applied industry, forms a pleasing contrast to those districts which have not yet been benefited by the introduction of European skill, energy, and capital. Recently, a tapioca factory has been established, and its enterprising proprietor, Mr. Wilson, has reaped in the success of his experiment the reward he so richly deserves. Of late years some attention has been paid to the planting of cocoa-nuts in the island, as well as in the province: plantations are very numerous, and yield fair profits to the proprietors. Here, equally with Singapore, much loss has been experienced by the owners of nutmeg plantations, owing to the ravages of the disease from which so many of the trees have perished. In the province there are no less than 41,000 acres under rice cultivation, and in general bearing good crops; in almost every instance in which the reverse is the case, the failure may be chiefly ascribed to the indolence of the Malay proprietor.

COLONIAL POSSESSIONS.

Reports on the Past and Present State of her Majesty's Colonial Possessions for the Year 1859.

Jamaica.—The total revenue in 1859 amounted to 279,935*l.*, and the expenditure 262,149*l.* The total amount of the island debt was 913,606*l.* 12*s.* 11*d.* Upon the social position of the native population the Governor wrote as follows:—"Your Grace will find that such of the documents (reports of the stipendiary magistrates) as touch upon the question of the supply of labour for the conduct of agricultural operations on the larger sugar estates, tend to strengthen the conclusion that no available increase of that supply can be expected from the native population; and admitting that there may be delay, irregularity, and disputes on some estates in the payment of the labourers' earnings, which exercise in respect to such properties a prejudicial effect upon the command of labour, I am satisfied that those causes are by no means so extensively in operation as to affect at all sensibly the general results of cultivation in the export of sugar and rum. I look upon it as a settled point, that the great mass of the emancipated population and their descendants are betaking themselves to the cultivation of the soil on their own account, either as a source of profit or as the mere means of subsistence, and cannot be safely relied upon for agricultural and manufacturing operations in which large sums of money are invested and advanced, and which require punctuality and regularity of work for their profitable conduct. The proportion of those who are setting themselves industriously on their own holdings, and rapidly rising in the social scale, while commanding the respect of all classes of the community, and some of whom are, to a limited extent, themselves the employers of hired labour, paid for either in money or in kind, is, however, I am happy to think, not only steadily increasing, but at the present moment is far more extensive than was anticipated by those who are cognizant of all that took place in this colony in the earlier days of negro freedom. There can be no doubt, in fact, that an independent, respectable, and I believe trustworthy

middle class is rapidly forming; and I am content to answer all that is alleged, either by those who more especially claim to be regarded as the friends of the emancipated slave, or by theorists in political economy, as to the course which ought to have been pursued when the relations of land-owner and labourer were remodelled immediately after the declaration of freedom in this island, by asserting my belief that if the real object of emancipation was to place the freedman in such a position that he might work out his own advancement in the social scale, and prove his capacity for the full and rational enjoyment of personal independence, secured by constitutional liberty, Jamaica will afford more instances, even in proportion to its large population, of such gratifying results, than any other land in which African slavery once existed. It was perhaps an inevitable condition of a state of things which could produce such results that freedom of action and choice of pursuits should be more absolutely unconstrained and exempt from coercive influences of any description than elsewhere; and I have never doubted that the habit which the whole labouring population acquired during slavery of systematically cultivating the soil for their own support, co-operating with the facilities of obtaining land, either by freehold or by payment of rent, and with the allurements and encouragement to avail themselves of those facilities which were held out to them, has been throughout the principal cause of their partial application as a body to estate labour, and of the consequent difficulty in obtaining their services with certainty and regularity, against which the Jamaica planter has had to contend.

“That a large proportion of a tropical people so situated should have fallen into a life of mere indolence, existing by the most superficial cultivation of a fruitful soil, ought not, perhaps, to be matter of surprise, especially when it is remembered that the moral and religious teachings which alone could, under such circumstances, reclaim them from the dangers of their position, have been confessedly insufficient in extent (if, indeed, they were not occasionally defective in other important particulars) to accomplish so desirable an end.

“Thus it is that Jamaica at this moment presents, as I believe, at once the strongest proof of the complete success of the great measure of emancipation, as relates to the capacity of the emancipated race for freedom, and the most unfortunate instance of a descent in the scale of agricultural and commercial importance as a colonial community.”

Honduras.—During 1859 there was much uneasiness produced by the recent failure of two extensive houses engaged in the mahogany trade. The value of imports in 1859 was 175,293*l.*, and of exports 288,161*l.*, showing a considerable reduction upon the year 1858. And, as a consequence of the stagnant condition of the trade, the finance of the colony suffered greatly. But agriculture was beginning to command a larger share of public attention, and the staple trade in mahogany and dyewoods was still maintained with vigour.

Duty on all imports, 1*l.* per cent.; tonnage, 2*s.* per ton; wines, 3*s.* per gallon; spirits and cordials, 4*s.* per gallon; bread and biscuits, 2*s.* per 100 lbs.; soap, 2*s.* per cwt.; rice, 2*s.* per 100 lbs.; coffee, 8*s.* per 100 lbs.; molasses and honey, no rated duty per gallon; cattle, 4*s.* per head; horses and mules, 12*s.* per head; tea, 1*s.* 6*d.* per lb.; lumber, 12*s.* per 1,000 feet; shingles, 3*s.* per 1,000; hay, 1*s.* per 100 lbs.; sugar candy, 12*s.* per 100 lbs.; cigars, 12*s.* per 1,000; tobacco, 12*s.* per 100 lbs.; malt liquor and cider,

1s. 6d. per dozen; cocoa, 4s. per 100 lbs.; unenumerated articles, 7l. 10s. per cent. Excise duty on sugar manufactured in the settlement, 3s. per 100 lbs.; excise duty on spirits manufactured in the settlement, 1s. per gallon. Tax on wheels, 12s. each; drays, 1l. each; horses kept in town, 1l. each; dogs, 4s. each; spirit licences, 30l., 15l., 6l. Hospital dues, 6s. per man. Annual hospital dues, 1s. 6d. per month per man. Harbour dues, according to the tonnage of the vessel, 1l. 16s., 1l. 9s., 18s., 12s. Storage on gunpowder, 6s. per barrel. Fees of offices, as fixed by law. Wharfage fees, according to size of vessel.

Bahamas.—In the revenue there was a little falling off in 1859. The imports and exports, on the other hand, had somewhat risen. In the year, two important acts were passed, one for establishing a steam communication between New Providence and the Out Island, and another to introduce the matrimonial causes law of England. A proposal had been made to establish a public collegiate institution, but it was not carried. Speaking of the education of the people, the Governor made the following remarks on the creoles:—"I am not speaking now of negroes, but of mulattoes. The negro creole, though devoid neither of vanity nor of ambition, still—speaking generally, of course,—is entirely destitute of that persistent will and energy, physical no less than mental, by which alone he could raise himself in the social scale. He is piqued because he is not ostensibly in that position which some of his spiritual guides have taught him is his indefeasible right. But he is better pleased to grumble at the injustice of the white man, than practise the white man's virtues of industry, economy, providence, and self-denial. He is really happier with his homeny and plot of ground, his grumbling gossip and innocent querulousness, savouring of Christian sans-culottism, than he would be if he were assured of a handsome independence on the condition of eight or ten years' hard work. This description must be limited to the negro creole, the descendant of the ancient slave. The liberated African, rescued from Spanish slave ships and settled in the colony, is generally a more energetic and useful man. To him and his class we owe all the rougher and more active industry of the colony. But it was neither of the African nor of the creole negro that I was speaking; only of the mulatto and his varied species. And they combine all the negro creole's ambition with a good deal of the Englishman's energy. They have as much pride as ambition; and are often, when educated, as capable as they are desirous of success. Nor do I think that any scion of a respectable coloured family, creditably brought up, would be regarded as an objectionable schoolmate for their children by the more intelligent and sensible white creoles. Your Grace is aware how much stronger this prejudice is among the Teutonic than among the Latin branches of the European family: and that it is stronger in the United States, and in colonies in the neighbourhood of the United States, than it is in England. But strong as it has been, I think it is undergoing modifications here. I certainly see that excuses are readily seized for repressing it. I observe that persons of mixed blood, whose physiognomy approaches the type of Southern Europe, are, whenever it is possible, admitted to the full advantages of the favoured complexion. Many of those who do not attain the object they court, ascribe their exclusion from the houses of the white creoles to an utterly false cause. They often think that it is their colour which excludes them, when, in truth, it is their social position. I am not speaking now of familiar intimacy, but only of the common courtes-

sies of social intercourse. And I do not hesitate to say that many a white creole who does not receive the visits of his coloured tailor, bootmaker, or butcher, exactly for the same reason that he would not receive those of his English tailor, butcher, or bootmaker, would gladly exchange civilities with an educated man of colour who enjoyed a definite social station. And I am also convinced that the latter class would themselves be made better and happier citizens, did they, in all cases where the circumstances of their family rendered it possible, enjoy the great advantage of having one common education with their future compeers and rivals of white descent. And it is only by the means of such an education, cautiously and wisely administered, that I can see any way of dealing with the complexity of that difficult question, "the question of colour." It is one which requires great tenderness and delicacy of handling: otherwise the prejudices which we would soothe are irritated afresh, and the jealousies which we would lull start up with fresh vigilance and activity.

Turks' Islands.—The population of these islands is placed at 3,250 souls.

No direct general taxation exists here, except the dog-tax. The following, however, are direct taxes on particular interests, namely:—(1) 2*l.* per centum on the gross proceeds of auction sales; (2) 25*l.* per annum for every licence to retail spirituous liquors, to which must be added a fee of 5*l.* collected by the Colonial Secretary on every such licence; (3) 5*l.* per annum for every licence to sell wines, cordials, and liquors in quantities not less than one pint; (4) 3*l.* for licence to act as pilot, not required to be renewed; (5) 4*s.* per annum for every dog, and 6*s.* per annum for every bitch—a tax imposed for the abolition of a crying nuisance, which, however, though it has been the means of abating it, has by no means abolished it. (6) On wrecking licences, the following amounts are charged annually, namely: first, 10*s.* on every open boat under five tons; second, 1*l.* on every vessel of five and not exceeding ten tons; third, 1*l.* 10*s.* on every vessel of ten and not exceeding twenty tons; and fourth, 2*l.* for every vessel of twenty tons and upwards.

The tariff on imports was prematurely reduced to too great an extent in 1849-50; but it is gratifying to remark that, by an ordinance passed during the present session, the elective members of council have seen the necessity of increasing the *ad valorem* duties from 7½ to 10 per centum, by which, if sanctioned by her Majesty, an increased revenue will be collected without detriment to any interest.

The export duty on salt of ¼*d.* per bushel of thirty-five imperial quarts is of considerable benefit to the revenue, is felt by none, and enables a correct account to be kept of the quantity of salt annually exported from the colony. This duty, therefore, seems to be one which it would be impolitic to abolish almost under any circumstances, being, moreover, a source of revenue which must increase by increased cultivation of new salinas, and which, by such means, may eventually enable those import duties to be taken off which press hardest on the labouring classes of the colony.

Trinidad.—In 1859 the trade of the island amounted to 734,902*l.* imports and 820,666*l.* exports. The crops exported consisted of 41,838 hhds. of sugar of 1,600 lbs. each, 4,758,350 lbs. cocoa, 2,238 puncheons of rum, 12,508 puncheons of molasses, 295 bales of cotton, and 54,180 lbs. coffee. The number of the Indian population in 1859 was 13,544. The mortality among them was about 2 per cent.

Perhaps the most conspicuous item in the Indian immigration statistics

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[141]

for the past year is the number of days returned as lost by wilful absence from work, viz. 424,503 days. This, when added to 101,352 days lost from sickness, gives an annual average loss on 8,000 indentured labourers of about two months and fifteen days per head. But as many employers do not enter the lost time against the coolies, and as many of the latter are too industrious to lose any time they can avoid, it follows that the real idlers lose about one-half of their masters' time, all of which, except the days sick, they are bound to make good. On this subject, however, the employers are lenient; of 424,583 days lost by wilful absence, only 78,897 have been reclaimed by endorsation, and of these the majority have been probably cancelled, on the immigrants agreeing to renew their contracts with their employers. Still the system is liable to abuses, which have been elsewhere reported, and will be adverted to when considering the working of the present ordinance. The commitments to the Royal Gaol have been, if anything, in smaller proportion than during the previous year, namely, 189 for breach of contract, and 118 for other offences.

There arrived in this colony in 1859 from Barbadoes and other places in the West Indies about 2,800 labourers, of whom 400 returned, the remainder adding about 200 souls per month to the fixed labouring population of the colony. It does not appear, however, that this large influx, coupled with that from the East, has had any influence in lowering the usual rate of wages. On the contrary, skilled or heavy labour appears to be in request at a higher quotation. Fifty and sixty cents per day have been paid for clearing and planting land; and in one instance, a man engaged during the previous year in boiling sugar, declined 70 cents, because he alleged he could make 60 cents more easily in field work, cutting canes. Free immigrant labour readily commands an annual premium of from 2*l.* to 4*l.* sterling, but the premium is not so eagerly sought after as in former years; at least, fewer have engaged themselves. The indenture fee of 4*l.* 10*s.* for the first year of an immigrant's service, when he is comparatively unskilled in cane labour, and physically weak, taken together with the 2*l.* fee on those of prior introduction, and the high rate of wages in 1859, left but a small margin of profit to the planter. Money no doubt circulated rapidly, but to the employer's eye a link in the chain was missing—either less expensive cultivation or a higher price for sugar.

British Guiana.—The revenue for the year was 275,618*l.*, and the expenditure 263,194*l.* The whole debt amounted on the 1st of August, 1860, to 449,802*l.*, of which 320,000*l.* was due to her Majesty's Government.

Barbadoes.—The colony was in a prosperous condition. An estate capable of producing 100 hogsheads of sugar is worth in the market about 10,000*l.* The revenue in 1859 was 87,595*l.*, and the expenditure 80,353*l.* The imports amounted to 1,049,237*l.*, and the exports to 1,225,572*l.*

Grenada.—The importation of Indian immigrants seems to have had an excellent effect on agriculture. Several large estates have been reclaimed during the last three years from unproductiveness and abandonment fallen into in consequence of the want of labourers in the room of those who retired after emancipation, and are now in a flourishing condition. The population was estimated at 34,638, and the coolie immigrants were 879, making in all 35,517. There were six churches and three chapels in Grenada, and one church in Carriacou.

Tobago.—The peace and progress of the colony have been uninterrupted, its sanitary condition has been satisfactory, and the increase of the staple exports has been steady though gradual.

St. Vincent.—The revenue had exceeded the expenditure, but there was a demand for labourers. There are some interesting productions in the island.

Among these conspicuously prominent, on hill, in valley, and continually meeting the traveller's eye, and as if of spontaneous luxuriant growth, are the bread-fruit trees, bearing in the greatest abundance food as nutritious as the yam and potato; the productions of these trees are, I understand, a great resource for the families of the labouring classes, placing them in a much more independent position to similar classes in Barbadoes, Jamaica, and other West India Islands, where the bread-fruit tree is not multiplied to the same bountiful extent. Another natural production is chalybeate water welling tepidly from various springs in this island. Numerous magnificent mountain cabbage trees of gigantic proportions adorn the country. There are a variety of other tall and stately palm-trees, but the cocoa-nut palms here, as in many of the West India Islands, have in great numbers, from some insect blight, died out, while most of the living ones exhibit a moribund appearance.

The bamboo cane is in luxuriant growth here, is very ornamental, and is useful for fences, and as conduits for the streams from the mountains of this well-watered island.

Insect life actively abounds after dark, innumerable large fire-flies emitting vivid flashes shooting incessantly through the trees in all directions. The continuous noise of various other insects during the night, at my residence, "The Garden," resembles somewhat the ticking of numbers of clocks, accompanied by the sound of an occasional castanet, all in discordant chorus, to which, however, time and custom gradually dull the ear.

St. Lucia.—The revenue for 1859 was 12,832*l.*, and the expenditure 12,498*l.* Coolie immigration to St. Lucia was commenced in 1859, and two cargoes were landed at Port Castrie. The population was about 30,000.

Antigua.—In the early part of the year yellow fever desolated the homes of many of the most respected and influential inhabitants. The produce of the year was 13,706 hogsheads of sugar. The population, according to the census of 1856, was 35,408, which was less than in 1851 by 1,728—a startling fact in a climate so favourable to life, and amongst a people naturally so prolific as the negro race. The chief causes of this unfavourable result may be traced as follows:—

First. The insufficient nature of the negro dwellings, the absence of proper drainage or cleanliness around them, and their being much overcrowded with inmates. Secondly. The great neglect of the children, especially at first birth, and whilst very young. Thirdly. The immense amount of immorality, or, rather, the almost total absence of morality. The returns of the Registrar-General show that out of 4,134 births registered in three years, 2,201 were illegitimate; and it is greatly to be feared that if abortions or premature births could also be arrived at and classified, the proportions would be largely increased against morality. Under such a state of things children are an incumbrance to the mother, and if criminal means be not resorted to to procure abortion or to destroy life at birth, there is so much indifference and apathy as to saving the life of children

that neglect or want of care and proper treatment are nearly as conducive to their destruction, and the frightful result is shown in the tables of the Registrar-General. Fourthly. The not obtaining medical attendance or proper nursing for women at childbirth, for children when ill, or for the aged and infirm. Fifthly. A want of wholesome and nourishing food suitable to the age and state of health, and the use of food which is unsuitable or possessing little nutriment.

The value of imports in 1859 was 203,997*l.*, and of exports 289,803*l.* During 1859 there were exported 13,706 hhds. of sugar, 675,000 galls. of molasses, and 112,120 galls. of rum.

Montserrat.—In 1859 the revenue was 3,513*l.*, and the expenditure 3,261*l.*

St. Kitts.—The Governor had no time to make his report.

Nevis.—The report shows that the revenue was maintained adequate to the expenditure, and that several important Acts had been passed for the appointment of an executive council, for changing the import and export taxes, and for imposing a tax on vessels entered inwards.

Virgin Islands.—The financial condition of the colony was improving. The revenue of 1859 amounted to 1,946*l.*, the expenditure to 1,595*l.* Measures had been passed for assimilating the law of the Virgin Islands to the law of England.

Dominica.—The general condition of the colony was described by the Governor in the following terms:—The imports and exports showed a steady annual increase, whilst the export of the staple, sugar, was larger this year than during the past ten. The revenue was in a flourishing condition, and based on taxation which is now altogether of a permanent character. The local expenditure naturally kept pace with the growing wants of the colony, but was now invariably within the limits of the revenue, whilst ample and secure provision has been made for the extinction of our only debt. Crime was, if anything, on the decrease. The difficult question of education by the State in a country where the Catholic population so largely predominates appears to have been satisfactorily solved. The roads, long a subject of complaint by all classes, are stated to be in better order than they have been for many years. Public buildings of all kinds have been put in repair. The labouring population were devoting themselves extensively to cane cultivation on their own account, and contribute not inconsiderably to swell the amount of the crop, whilst they do not neglect the work on the estates, most of which acknowledge that they are fully supplied with labour. Litigation amongst all classes was much diminished, and a condition of contentment, order, and respect for authority existed to which the colony has of late years been a stranger.

Mauritius and Seychelles.—The revenue in 1859 amounted to 597,342*l.*, and the expenditure was 553,779*l.* In every respect the financial condition of the colony was most favourable. The introduction of fresh immigrant labour has given much impulse to agriculture, and considerable improvements have been introduced in the manufacture of sugar. The value of imports was 2,025,890*l.*, and of exports 2,544,793*l.*

For the first time last year the new system of immigration was fully introduced into Mauritius. Engagements which had previously been prohibited, between the planter and his immigrant labourer, except upon the shores of Mauritius or within the limits of the colony, were sanctioned under proper regulations in India; and great numbers of the Indians who

came here to seek their fortunes in the pursuit of agriculture in Mauritius came here as the engaged labourers of the planters, with whom they had already made their binding contract through the safe medium of Government agency, before leaving the depôts of India.

Hence, and by means of many other improvements in the immigration laws, justice was done to the planter as well as to the Indian. With the former there was no longer the fear that the labourer, whom at so much cost and trouble he had morally engaged in India for his service in Mauritius, would be kidnapped on his arrival into the service of another employer, and would desert the service of his intended master for that of his more artful and successful competitor; with the immigrant there was no uncertainty as to the mode and terms of his employment, no doubt as to whom he was to serve, and no temptation to swerve from his inceptive engagement in India, and at the treacherous instigation of a wily crimp to abandon a service to which he had engaged himself, and to form a new engagement with a man of whom he had never before heard. To the crimp, who lived upon his stratagems, who deceived the new immigrant and taught him lessons of unfaithfulness, and who extorted unbounded rewards from his almost equally unprincipled employer, the change was fatal. The crimp was doomed to become an honest man, and to discover some other means of employment more accordant with the general interests of employers and employed, but perhaps less profitable to himself.

The immigrant, under the new arrangements, had two courses open to him; one to come here under an engagement in India to serve a particular master in Mauritius, the other to come here under an engagement to the Government, but free to select his own master on his arrival from among those who would offer to give him at least the wages and rations stipulated for on his behalf by the Government.

Out of 9,272 immigrants who were introduced during the first quarter of the year, 4,601, or about 49·6 per cent., were placed in quarantine (including those who were detained in what is called "temporary quarantine," that is, put under observation merely, while measures are taken for fumigating and cleansing the ship, and destroying the clothes of the immigrants); 3,146 were placed in quarantine at the lazarets, and suffered an average detention of 56 days; and there were, at one time, as many as 2,314 immigrants collected at the different quarantine stations.

Whereas during the period that elapsed between the 1st April and the 31st December, out of 35,125 immigrants introduced, 8,635, or only 24·5 per cent., were placed in quarantine, of whom 5,223 were sent to the lazarets. The largest number at any one time under quarantine at the different stations during this period did not exceed 794, and they were detained on an average not more than 13 days.

Indeed, the total number of immigrants placed under quarantine at the lazarets during any one of the three last quarters of the year never amounted to the maximum number for whom accommodation can at any one time be provided at the three quarantine stations; so that even if it were likely that immigration would continue to be conducted on the same scale as during the year 1858-59 it would be a justifiable inference, that, under the precautions which have been taken for ensuring attention to the sanitary state of the immigrants prior to their departure from India, there is ample accommodation at the lazarets for the largest number of immigrants that is at all likely to be collected together at any one time under

quarantine; and as the number of intending immigrants during 1860 will probably not exceed one-half of the number of that arrived during 1859, there can be no reasonable grounds for apprehending a recurrence of embarrassments similar to those which have been experienced.

This wholesale system of quarantine, which would be regarded as a monstrous grievance, if, in its practical application, it happened more frequently to embrace men of occupation whose time was of value, does not operate with the slightest disadvantage to the immigrant coolie. On the contrary, it may be said rather to improve his condition, for he is exceedingly well cared for and well fed at the stations, made to keep his person clean, and is provided with new apparel on quitting the station and embarking in his new service in the colony, and the time spent in quarantine may be regarded as a period of sanitary preparation for the new life of industry which he is about to commence.

The expense is, notwithstanding, a heavy one to the community, but I believe there is not a planter or a creole in the island who would not readily contribute to the cost, rather than diminish by a single day the detention which, for sanitary objects, the law has imposed.

The general population of the island was 96,526; immigrants, 201,979; aliens, chiefly Chinese, 6,541: total, 305,046. The population of the Seychelles and other dependencies of Mauritius was 8,000. Various public questions were being agitated in Mauritius respecting the civil government and education. Much was required, but the general system must still be an imperfect one, in consequence of the want of harmony between the original constitution of the country and the various foreign improvements which have from time to time been engrafted on it. English and French systems are so wholly different from each other, that no attempt at association and assimilation can ever be perfectly accomplished. The English system prompts the Government to rely greatly on the energy, enterprise, co-operation, and responsibility of the people; the French system prompts the people to rest altogether on the undertakings of the Government. In the former case, the people, knowing the value of their participation in all movements in advance, are proud to display their powers in aiding the efforts of the State. In the latter, the people, equally reliant upon the Government, make but little effort to assist, either by voluntary combinations or by individual exertions, in advancing general public improvements.

Hence it is that attempts at engrafting free institutions, to a limited extent, upon a constitution founded upon the strict and arbitrary rule of the old régime, have proved in some respects a failure; so also the graft of English laws upon the old French codes; so also the popular influence and criticism of the press over institutions which are not of popular form, and where the true principles of the "liberty of the press" are not always very clearly comprehended; so also all attempts at inducing voluntary associations of persons, where pecuniary contributions are to be relied on for charitable, commercial, scientific, or practicable objects. All these fail, because they are foreign to the original constitution of the country, and to the habits and customs of the people, and because they are attempts at piecemeal associations and assimilations of antagonistic principles.

But if the energy and enterprise which are promptly and liberally shown for private and personal advantage, individual aggrandizement, or commercial or agricultural speculation, could be brought to the aid of the Govern-

ment in carrying out objects of importance for the common benefit of the colony, and in the foundation and improvement of public institutions, schools, colleges, and eleemosynary establishments, and if reliance could be placed in individual and personal devotion to public objects, similar to that which is the characteristic of purely English society, living under a purely English constitution, there is nothing that the talents, wealth, and energy of the people of Mauritius would not readily accomplish for the benefit of the colony.

Canada.—In 1859, the imports amounted to 24,706,981 dollars, and the exports to 33,555,161 dollars; and the quantity of land sold was 401,446 acres. Important steps were taken towards greater freedom of trade, and measures were in progress for the establishment of a free port, with a district attached to it, on the Gulf of St. Lawrence and at the Sault Ste. Marie; the opening of the whole line of canal free of all but nominal toll to all vessels, American and British, proceeding to a Canadian port, or proceeding out to sea by the St. Lawrence, and the reduction of the duties on wine, brandy, and dried fruits. The objectionable duty on books was virtually repealed.

Nova Scotia.—No report was made by the Governor.

New Brunswick.—Nothing has occurred to prevent or even to retard the steady, although gradual progress of prosperity in the colony.

Prince Edward Island.—There was some increase in the revenue. On the 31st January, 1860, the public debt of the colony was 28,965*l*.

Newfoundland.—The fishery has been successful, and matters were going on quietly between English and French fishermen both in 1859 and 1860.

Bermuda.—Some considerable improvement has taken place in the trade of the colony, but there are many hindrances to the extension of its resources.

Sierra Leone.—No report was made.

Gambia.—The following observations appeared in the report regarding the operation of the treaty of commerce on the trade of that colony:—

Before I leave this subject I may add that it is greatly the hope of the colonist of Gambia that the late commercial treaty with France has a wide margin left for the British shipping interest, hereafter to be dovetailed into the code. The fact is isolated in colonial history; but while I write I count thirty tricolours, six stars and stripes, and but one union jack flying in the port of Bathurst.

This anomaly is easily explained. Our staple product, the ground nut, finds a large market in France, a small sale in America, but no market to speak of in Great Britain. The English merchant of Bathurst hires foreign vessels, to avoid the prohibitory duty of twenty-five francs per ton charged on English bottoms on their entry into a French port. Now, according to our laws French and American ships are treated in our ports in all respects as if they were English; but English ships have not the same favours in French and American ports. This gives foreign ships an undue advantage. Supposing a cargo is sent from America, and it is uncertain whether a better price can be obtained for it in France or in England, a French bottom is naturally preferred by the merchant to an English one for carrying it, because a French ship can land it in England as well as an English one, but an English ship cannot land it in France as well as a French one. The days are gone by for advocating protection for our shipping, yet the

present time is, happily, open for urging upon the imperial legislature to obtain by treaty French privileges for English ships, thus placing our merchant marine upon an equality with the foreigner. And last, but not least, the competition of the French merchant since the Albreda Treaty is very active, seriously affecting the revenue in this wise:—He trades chiefly with ready money, where the Englishman traded with goods; the specie is preferred by the native to work up into bracelets for his wife. To compete with the foreigner our merchant is compelled also to trade with the dollar, consequently he does not now send home for goods, but specie, which pays no revenue.

In Camboja great quantity of cotton could be grown, but all depends upon the price.

Gold Coast.—No special report was made.

St. Helena.—The total amount of tonnage calling at this port in 1859 was 587,547 tons.

Cape of Good Hope and Natal.—No report was sent.

New South Wales.—The population in 1859 was estimated at 336,572, somewhat less than in 1858; but this was accounted for by the separation of

Queensland.—The state of crime in the colony has never been made the subject of proper investigation. Mining operations were most active. The production of coals, in 1859, was 308,210 tons. The production of gold, in 1859, was 329,363 oz., value 1,259,127*l*. The extent of land under crop, in 1859, was 247,542 acres. There were in the colony 214,684 horses, 2,190,972 cattle, 119,701 pigs, and 5,162,671 sheep, being somewhat less than in the previous year. The total imports amounted to 6,409,316*l*., and total exports 5,639,314*l*. Of wool there was exported 67,261,339 lbs.

The area of Queensland, if bounded on the west by the 141st meridian of east longitude, is estimated by the surveyor-general at about five hundred and sixty thousand (560,000) square miles; that is, nearly ten times the area of England and Wales. By far the largest portion of this territory is available for agricultural or pastoral purposes. It appears to have not been as yet authoritatively determined whether the further area of about six hundred and forty-nine thousand eight hundred (649,800) square miles, comprised between the 141st and the 129th meridian of east longitude (which latter is the eastern boundary of the colony of Western Australia), and lying north of the 26th parallel of south latitude (which is the northern boundary of the colony of South Australia), be not also subject to the jurisdiction of Queensland. This question is not devoid of practical interest and importance; for, although since the former settlement at Port Essington was abandoned, no attempt has yet been made to colonize the territory referred to, still a shipwreck, for example, might at any time take place on its coast, and furnish (as I am advised) matter for adjudication in the colonial courts.

The total exports have already increased to 609,794*l*. The population was estimated at 25,000.

Victoria.—The population of this colony, in 1857, was 410,766, and, at the end of 1858, it was estimated at upwards of 500,000. The live stock, enumerated in 1859, was 5,578,413 sheep, 699,330 cattle, and 68,323 horses. In New South Wales, there were 7,581,762 sheep, 2,110,604 cattle, and 200,713 horses. The export of wool had increased, in 1858, to 21,660,295 lbs., value 1,756,950*l*. The area of Victoria is computed at

86,031 square miles, or very near that of England, Scotland, and Ireland, which is 89,654 square miles. The ascertained and estimated produce of the gold fields of Victoria, exclusive of the gold taken from colonies by private hand from 1851 to 1859, was as follows:—1851, 145,146 oz., 580,587*l*.; 1852, 2,724,933 oz., 10,899,733*l*.; 1853, 3,150,020 oz., 12,600,083*l*.; 1854, 2,392,965 oz., 9,568,262*l*.; 1855, 2,793,065 oz., 11,172,261*l*.; 1856, 2,985,695*l*. oz., 11,142,783; 1857, 2,761,528 oz., 11,046,113*l*.; 1858, 2,528,187 oz., 10,112,752; and 1859, 2,280,675 oz., 9,122,702*l*.: total, 21,761,319 oz., 87,045,276*l*.

Tasmania.—The population, of this colony in 1859, was estimated at 85,178 souls. There were 1,699,199 sheep, 79,950 cattle, and 20,559 horses. The imports were valued at 1,163,907*l*., and the exports at 1,193,898*l*.

South Australia.—The natural increase of the population, in 1859, by the excess of births over deaths was 3,225 per cent., a rate of increase considerably higher than in the neighbouring colonies, and nearly three times exceeding the average shown in the registration returns for England and Wales.

In the last ten years there were imported 125,595 immigrants, and, sent out, 67,784 emigrants, leaving a gain of 56,811. The value of exports, in 1859, was 1,502,165*l*., consisting of 40 per cent. of bread stuffs, 31 per cent. of wool, 27 per cent. of copper, &c., and 2 per cent. of miscellaneous products. At the close of 1859, there were sold 2,103,789 acres of land, or 17·83 acres per head of the population; but only 361,884 acres were under cultivation. 31½ miles of railway were opened for traffic, and 448 miles of telegraph.

Western Australia.—A large increase was observable on all the items connected with the colony. The exports had increased from 43,907*l*. in 1856, to 93,037*l*. in 1859. Labour was plentiful and fairly paid; provisions abundant and reasonable in price; and cheap land within the reach of all. At the end of 1859, the population was found to be 14,837.

New Zealand.—The population, in 1859, was 71,456; of this 3·02 per cent. were occupied in trade and commerce, 7·45 per cent. in agricultural and pastoral, 7·72 per cent. Mechanics and artificers—1·61 per cent. professors, 6·85 per cent. labourers, 7·61 per cent. miscellaneous and domestic servants, and 65·71 per cent. no occupation, principally women and children.

Ceylon.—In 1859, the revenue amounted to 747,936*l*., and the expenditure to 698,263*l*. The pearl fishery of 1859 was, as regards results, the most successful that has taken place since the fisheries were resumed in 1855. It realized 48,215*l*. 18*s*. 10*d*., and but for the change of weather which set in at the end of March, and the outbreak of cholera which ensued, there is every reason to believe that the proceeds would have reached 60,000*l*. The great increase in the selling price of the oysters was owing to the profit, which could not have been less than 300 per cent., made by the speculator in 1858. The fame of this brought all India into the field as competitors. Money was as plentiful as buyers; and the same oysters which averaged 1*l*. 19*s*. a thousand in 1858, in 1859 produced an average of 4*l*. 10*s*., the highest rate paid being no less than 8*l*. 8*s*. There is no reason to doubt that even at these large prices large profits were made.

With regard to the native population, although the improvement in their means and habits is marked, and has had no small influence upon the increase in the revenue, it is impossible to rely upon them for any supply of organized labour out of their usual routine. They will work by con-

tract in clearing jungle; the whole paddy and cocoa-nut cultivation of the island is in their hands; they convey the entire coffee crop from the estates to the port of shipment; but they will not work for hire upon the estates themselves. Many have small coffee gardens, which they cultivate with their wives and children, and the amount received for what is termed native coffee varies from 250,000*l.* to 300,000*l.* It is with this money, that the improvements in native houses, dress, and habits of living have originated; and these, again, are encouraged by an increased feeling of security due to a more regular administration of justice and an improved police. The fusion of interests, under these circumstances, is very striking. And although Oriental feeling and customs still maintain their sway, there is a curious dash of European feeling, a consciousness of legal rights, and, above all, a very general conviction of the substantial benefits of British rule.

Hong Kong.—The population, on the 1st January, 1860, was 86,241.

Labuan.—No special report was sent.

Gibraltar.—There has been some increase in the revenue; but the trade with Morocco had suffered materially from the existing war between Spain and that country.

Malta.—The revenue, in 1859, was 147,389*l.*, and the expenditure 142,347*l.* Several ordinances on maritime commercial laws were passed since 1858.

Ionian Islands.—The revenue, in 1859, amounted to 130,261*l.* A new banking law was passed authorizing the formation of new banks on condition of previous sanction from the governor being granted; a minimum capital of 40,000*l.* issue of bank notes not to exceed paid up capital. No note to be of less value than 1*l.*

Falkland Islands.—The colony is in a satisfactory condition. The population was 590, and there were 8,000 sheep, and 7,000 cattle.

EAST INDIA SALARIES.

Return of the Annual Salaries of the Offices of Governor-General, Governors, Lieutenant-Governors, Chief Justices, Puisne Judges, Bishops, Chaplains, and all Civil and Military Covenanted Servants of the Indian Government. (Mr. Bright.) 28th February, 1860. (116.)

INDIA.		Salary.	
	Salary.		Salary.
1 Governor-general, 5,000 <i>l.</i> outfit, and	£25,000	1 Commissioner, Nagpore ...	£6,000
4 Ordinary members of supreme council each	8,000	1 Governor, Singapore ...	4,200
4 Ordinary members of legislative council each	5,000	1 Resident councillor, Prince of Wales' Island ...	1,800
3 Secretaries to Government... ..	5,000	1 Resident councillor ...	1,200
1 Secretary to Government ...	3,600	1 Superintendent, Darjeeling...	1,440
1 Secretary to Government ...	3,000	1 Resident, Baroda ...	3,600
1 Accountant-general... ..	4,200	1 Political agent, Bhopaul ...	2,100
1 Mint master	3,600	1 Agent, Central India ...	4,800
1 Assay master	2,700	1 Political agent, Gwalior ...	2,400
1 Director-general, post-office ...	3,600	1 Resident, Hyderabad ...	6,600
1 Superintendent, electric telegraph...	3,600	1 Political agent ...	1,800
1 Consulting engineer, railway ...	2,400	1 Commissioner, Mysore and Coorg...	4,900
1 Superintendent suppression of thuggee	1,680	1 Superintendent, Mysore princes ...	1,200
1 Chief commissioner, Oude ...	6,600	1 Resident, Nepal ...	4,200
1 Commissioner, Pegue ...	3,600	1 Commissioner and agent, North-eastern frontier ...	2,400
1 Commissioner, Tenasserim ...	3,600	1 Political agent, Rewar ...	1,440
		1 Political agent, Turkish Arabia ...	3,000

BENGAL.

	Salary.		Salary.
1 Lieutenant-governor	£10,000	24 District judges each	£3,000
1 Secretary to governor	3,600	22 District collectors each	2,300
1 Junior secretary	3,000	1 Commissioner of the peace	3,000
1 Accountant	3,600	1 Senior magistrate	2,400
1 Collector, Calcutta	3,600	1 Director of public instruction	3,000
1 Controller-general, Chitagon	3,000	1 Principal of Presidency College	1,440
3 Agents, Chittagong each	3,000	1 Principal of Medical College	1,200
1 Agent, Behar	4,200	1 Principal of Hooghly College	720
1 Agent, Benares	3,600	1 Bishop of Calcutta and Metro-	
1 Postmaster-general	1,800	politan	4,598
1 Chief justice	8,335	1 Superintendent of lunatic asylum	1,758
2 Puisne judges each	6,256	1 Chief engineer, public works	2,700
1 Advocate-general	3,762	1 Commissioner, Arracan	1,800
1 Solicitor	2,460	1 Commissioner, Chota Nagpore	3,000
1 Judge, court of small causes	1,860	1 Superintendent, Cachar	1,200
1 Judge, court of small causes	1,200	1 Agent to governor-general, Moor-	
5 Judges of the sudder each	5,000	shedabad	3,600

NORTH-WESTERN PROVINCES.

	Salary.		Salary.
1 Lieutenant-governor	£10,000	District judges each	£3,000
1 Secretary to governor	3,000	Collectors and magistrates each	2,700
1 Accountant	3,600	1 Director of public instruction	2,400
1 Commissioner of customs	3,000	Principals of schools, some 720l, some	480
1 Postmaster-general	2,400	1 Chief engineer, public works	2,700
1 Inspector-general of prisons	3,000	1 Director of Ganges Canal	1,440
3 Judges of the sudder each	4,500	1 Chief engineer of Saugor and Ner-	
1 Registrar	2,400	budda territory	1,200
2 Members of Board of Revenue each	3,090		

DEPENDENCIES.

	Salary.		Salary.
1 Commissioner, Saugor	£3,800	1 Political agent, Nimar	£1,200
1 Deputy commissioner, Jubbulpore	1,200	1 Governor-general's agent and com-	
1 Deputy commissioner, Noshungabad	1,200	missioner	6,600
1 Deputy commissioner, Seonee	720	1 Political agent, Meywar	3,000
1 Deputy commissioner, Dupoh	720	1 Political agent, Joudpore	2,100
1 Superintendent, Jaloun and Jhansi	1,800	1 Political agent, Jeypore	2,100
1 Commissioner, Kumaon	2,400	1 Political agent, Bhurtpore	1,920
1 Political agent, Bundelcund	1,200		

PUNJAB.

	Salary.		Salary.
1 Lieutenant-governor	£10,000	7 Commissioners, judicial and revenue	
1 Financial commissioner	4,200	departments each	£3,300
1 Judicial commissioner	4,200	1 Director of public instruction	1,440
1 Secretary to government	3,600	1 Chief engineer	2,700
1 Junior secretary to government	3,000	1 Director of canals	1,200
1 Inspector of prisons	1,200		

MADRAS.

	Salary.		Salary.
1 Governor	£12,800	1 Inspector of prisons	£3,300
2 Members of council	6,400	3 Judges of the sudder each	4,900
1 Secretary to governor	5,000	1 Registrar	2,525
1 Accountant-general	3,600	District judges	2,800
1 Superintendent of stamps	1,390	1 Inam commissioner	3,100
1 Collector of customs	4,080	1 Director of revenue survey	3,728
1 Mint master	2,100	1 Conservator of forests	1,200
1 Postmaster-general	2,800	1 Director of public instruction	3,000
1 Consulting engineer	2,400	1 Principal of Presidency College	1,200
1 Chief justice	6,000	1 Bishop	2,500
1 Puisne judge	5,000	1 Resident, Tanjore	900
1 Advocate-general	2,624	1 Resident, Vellore	324
3 Judges of small causes each	1,800	1 Resident, Travancore	3,360
1 Commissioner of police	1,800		

BOMBAY.

	Salary.		Salary.
1 Governor	£12,800	3 Judges of the sudder	£4,200
2 Members of Council... ..	each 6,400	1 Registrar	2,400
1 Secretary	4,000	2 Commissioners of revenue	each 4,200
2 Secretaries	3,500	1 District judge and agent to governor	3,400
1 Secretary	3,000	5 District judges	2,800
1 Accountant-general... ..	4,000	1 District judge	2,400
1 Mint master	2,400	1 Commissioner of customs, salt, &c... ..	4,200
1 Postmaster-general	1,800	1 Director of public instruction	3,000
1 Engineer, railway	2,400	1 Bishop	2,560
1 Chief justice	6,000	1 Commissioner, Sindh	5,200
1 Puisne judge	5,000	1 Political superintendent, Khelat	1,200
1 Advocate-general	1,920	1 Resident, Aden	3,600
1 Solicitor	1,440	1 Political agent, Myhee Caunta	1,440
1 Judge of small courts	1,800	1 Political agent, Rewa Caunta	1,440
1 Judge of small courts	1,200	1 Political agent, Cutch	13,80
1 Judge of small courts	900	1 Political agent, Kattywar	2,400
1 Commissioner of police	3,000	1 Resident, Persian Gulf	2,880
1 Inspector-general of prisons	3,000	1 British agent, Muscat	960

ECCLESIASTICAL ESTABLISHMENT (BRITISH NORTH AMERICA).

Returns of the Names of the Bishops, Archdeacons, Rectors, Ministers, and Clergy on the Ecclesiastical Establishment of the British North American Provinces paid out of the Revenues of this Country, and the Dates of their Appointments respectively, and the places of their Residence and Service, for the last five years; of the Names of the Foreign Missionaries employed in said Provinces during the last Ten Years, and paid in like manner, the respective Dates of their Appointments, and Time and Places of Services, and by whom appointed, and on what Terms and for what Time; of the Date of any Grant of Pension to the President of King's College, the Name of the Person now in receipt thereof, and when first paid to him; and of the Names of the Persons in receipt thereof for the last Ten Years. (M. Hadfield.) August 25, 1860. (602.)

In Canada there were a bishop, an archdeacon, a rector, and a minister at Quebec, a rector in Montreal, in Three Rivers, in St. Armand, in St. George, and St. Thomas, and a Presbyterian minister at Argenteuil. In Nova Scotia there were an archdeacon and twelve rectors, who are ministers and clergy-missionaries of the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts, paid by the Imperial Government during, but limited to, the lives of those missionaries—twenty-two additional being paid by the Society—and a Presbyterian minister. In Newfoundland there was a bishop.

CONVICT PRISONS.

Reports of the Directors of Convict Prisons for the Year 1860, with Memorandum on different Questions relative to the Management and Disposal of Convicts, together with Abstract of Returns, &c.

As very little is known to the general public of the system of discipline which has superseded the hulks and transportation, and some erroneous impressions have been created, a brief sketch is necessary, in order that the principles on which it is founded, and the arrangements for giving effect to them, may be better understood. It is also proposed to explain the different conditions under which the established system is worked in England and Ireland respectively.

1. Without forgetting the previous labours of Howard, or the great improvements which were the result of passing the Gaol Act of 1823 by Sir Robert Peel, it may be stated that the first impetus affecting prison-discipline was given by the fearless exposures and consequent results of the Duke of Richmond's Committee in 1836. These opened the way to the appointment of inspectors and the great reforms which have since been effected.

2. The first practical step was taken in 1839, when Parliament passed an act providing for the separate confinement of prisoners, and Lord John Russell, then Secretary of State for the Home Department, determined on the erection of Pentonville prison for testing its efficacy by a great experiment.

3. In 1842 a comprehensive scheme for the management of convicts in the penal colony of Van Diemen's Land, was laid down by Lord Stanley and Sir James Graham. The following were the leading features:—
1. Norfolk Island for all prisoners convicted of the heaviest offences.
2. Probation gangs in Van Diemen's Land as the second stage of the above, and the first stage for all other convicts.
3. Probation passes divided into three classes, conferring different degrees of privileges.
4. Tickets-of-leave.
5. Pardons, conditional or absolute. Sir James Graham, in his instructions to the commissioners, dated December, 1842, thus alludes to this system and its connection with Pentonville prison:—"In framing this measure of regulated punishment, we have not overlooked its connection with the prison which is placed under your superintendence, and I avail myself of this opportunity for laying before you the view which I take of the use to be made of Pentonville prison, and of the mode in which it may be rendered the most effective auxiliary to an improved scheme of convict discipline." Difficulties which could not have been foreseen interfered with the development of the colonial measures. I would, however, desire to call attention to the intermediate character of the discipline under the whole of the probationary stages.

4. In a despatch, dated May, 1844, the governor reported "that the difficulty of getting into service continued, and that the pass-holders being thus thrown upon the world with nothing but their labour to support them, and no labour being in demand, must either starve or steal." He concludes as follows:—"Unless some means be adopted to employ the ticket-of-leave men and conditional pardon men, who, as they receive their indulgences, are thrown on their own resources, I am fearful we shall not only have a pauper, but a thieving population thrown upon us."

5. Lord Grey and Sir George Grey came into office in 1846, when these difficulties were at their height. It was soon afterwards decided to stop transportation for two years, in order to afford relief, and to meet the difficulties at home instead of transferring them to the colony. In accordance with this decision, no convicts were transported between February, 1848, and March, 1850. It appeared, however, very doubtful, whether it would ever be fully resumed, and arrangements were, therefore, made to prepare for what might be considered the worst, by doing the best that was possible for securing the interests of the public in making an effort to extend the plans already commenced for reforming the criminals, and preparing them for release in this country.

6. The experiment on separate confinement, as determined upon by Lord John Russell in 1839, had been most successfully worked out by the commissioners appointed by Sir James Graham in 1842. It was declared in their report for 1847, that after five years' close attention and experience, they believed the moral results to be "without parallel in the history of penal discipline." Hence, it only became necessary to organize a system of discipline and industrial training, which could be carried out for longer terms than eighteen months (the limit which it was deemed expedient to enforce for separate confinement).

The whole subject at this time, received the most anxious consideration of the Home and Colonial Secretaries. The result was a determination by Sir George Grey, to form the establishment at Portland, "with a view to carry into effect the systematic application of convict labour to national works of importance, and as affording the best means of training the men to those habits of industry, which would fit them on discharge for earning an honest livelihood either at home or abroad."

"The gradual abolition of the hulks as places of confinement for convicts was also decided on, and the substitution of prisons on shore in the nature of that at Portland, with such improvements as experience might render advisable."

The prisons referred to (Pentonville and Portland), may thus be taken to represent the system (namely, separate confinement for twelve months, and associated labour on public works for a period proportioned to the sentence), established for preparing men for their release, when finally disposed of at home or by removal to a penal colony.

7. In order to afford this opening, transportation, which had been suspended in 1848, was resumed in 1850. The regulations under which men on landing received their tickets of leave in Van Diemen's Land as authorized by Earl Grey, were fully explained to every convict in a notice suspended in his cell.

Taken as a body, the men who were sent out as ticket-of-leave holders to Van Diemen's Land, after going through both the probation periods at Pentonville and Portland, fully justified the anticipations expressed in the despatch of Earl Grey, "that they would prove a very different class from those who had been formerly transported from the hulks without any previous training calculated to promote their reformation."

A little reflection will show that transportation in this form was a means of disposal which at least realized great advantages to the convict and the mother country. In fact, it solved the only real difficulty in the convict question. In the colonies there existed the means of securing employment, and no objection whatever to receive the convicts, even though under close

supervision of the police. On the contrary, the services of ticket-of-leave holders were eagerly sought after. The surgeon superintendent of the *Cornwall* convict ship, which reached Hobart Town, June, 1851, reported,—“Crowds of colonists found their way on board the ship, and were actually contending with each other who should have priority in selecting the men whom they wished to engage.” In a series of very able letters on transportation, Mr. Henry Denison stated:—“And what was the general opinion entertained of the holders of tickets-of-leave by the employers of labour? Why, that they were five times out of six to be preferred to the free emigrant, not only on account of the greater security for their good conduct involved in holding the ticket-of-leave, but their general superiority in intelligence and fully equal trustworthiness.”

It has been the same from the very first in Western Australia. In a despatch from the governor of Western Australia to Earl Grey, dated 5th February, 1850, his Excellency observed:—“I am happy to state that the conduct of the men has been good beyond my most sanguine expectations.” Captain Henderson, the comptroller-general, referring to the tickets-of-leave holders, observes:—“I have much pleasure in stating that in almost every instance I have received from their employers most satisfactory accounts of them, and, in many instances, the assurance that they are the best servants they ever had.” The chaplain says:—“It is but due to those through whose instruction they have passed that I should bear testimony to the soundness of the religious teaching imparted to them.”

These facts would appear to corroborate the opinion, that convicts after all are not so very bad as they are usually considered, and at all events show the importance of a satisfactory means of disposal. There can, however, I fear, be no question that the results are principally due to the measures indicated in the explanatory notice placed in the cell of every convict from 1848 to 1853.

It will there be seen that the principle established by Earl Grey in 1848 for working out the third period of the English system in Van Diemen's Land, and subsequently in Western Australia, was that all convicts released on tickets-of-leave should have employment secured to them as an indispensable condition to their being brought under stringent regulations affecting their liberty. The following are some of the provisions:—“A convict shall not pass out of the custody of the Government in the colony, until he shall be engaged, for at least a year, for service with some private employer. If suitable service cannot be obtained, the convicts will be employed by Government at wages out of which they will receive clothing,” &c. It is then explained that “the ticket-of-leave holder is required to remain in a particular district; must register his place of residence, and any change of it; must be at his dwelling from ten o'clock at night till daybreak; must report himself periodically at the police office of his district,” &c. These regulations and many others are still in full operation in Western Australia, all, however, being dependent on the means of securing employment.

The wisdom of these combined measures, their efficacy for the proposed objects, and the credit due to Mr. Hampton and Major Henderson, R.E., who, as Comptrollers-General, have had the arduous task of working them out in Van Diemen's Land and Western Australia respectively, have been fully demonstrated by long experience. Taken in connection with the first and second probationary periods of discipline at Pontonville and Portland, these arrangements complete the English system of discipline for males.

Loss of this Means of Disposal.—It was a heavy blow to this carefully devised system when the colony of Van Diemen's Land, from the high consideration of not being made a receptacle for the malefactors of the mother country, requested that no more might be sent there.

This was acceded to by the Government, and the last convict ship sailed for Van Diemen's Land in 1852. In the meantime, however, Western Australia had petitioned for the advantage so long enjoyed by Van Diemen's Land, and by which it had become a prosperous country in an incredibly short period, and arrangements were therefore made to send a small portion of convicts to be disposed of there on tickets-of-leave, the remainder being released at home.

Employment, Police Supervision, &c.—It was at this period, as pointed out in all my former reports, that our difficulties really commenced. No means of disposal in this country can ever be found which will meet the conditions which commanded success in Van Diemen's Land, or which are retained by a continuation of the system in Western Australia. In England there exists an objection to employ a discharged convict or a ticket-of-leave holder. Many are trustworthy and anxious to enter on a new career of life, and many benevolent persons are ready to lend them a helping hand, but it is with fellow servants and with fellow labourers that the objections mainly rest; they will not work with them. This difficulty was clearly foreseen before the present system was commenced. Sir James Graham in his instructions to the commissioners of Pentonville, dated December, 1842, after referring to "the excessive supply of labour in this country, and the fastidious rejection of all those whose character is tainted," goes on to say:—"The convict on whom the discipline might have produced the most salutary effect when liberated and thrown back upon society here, would have an indifferent chance of a livelihood from the profitable exercise of honest industry; and by the force of circumstances which he could not control, he would be drawn again into his former habits,—he would rejoin his old companions, and renew the career of crime." Hence the impossibility of any general supervision by the police, which would in effect stamp a man as a convict for the rest of his life, and thus ensure his return to crime for a maintenance. The experience of France is a sufficient warning against so fatal a course. It is thus described by M. Béranger, in his valuable work on prisons:—"La surveillance leur devient une charge qui, de même que cette chaîne qu'ils traînaient aux pieds, rend pour ainsi dire présent à tous les yeux, en tous lieux et à toute heure, le souvenir de leur crime, et, au grand détriment de la société, les expose sans cesse à en commettre de nouveaux."

I acknowledge to have thought differently when the cessation of transportation was first talked of, and alarm excited. It then became my duty to look ahead and prepare for so great and adverse a change in the secondary punishments of this country. In my third report for 1849, it was suggested, "whether some of the restrictions applied to a ticket-of-leave holder might not be properly and advantageously enforced on a convict receiving a conditional pardon," for that "such a measure would be a very effectual protection to the public."

Our earliest experience, however, in this country showed that the theory of protection to the public would have been destruction to the convict, in branding him as a criminal, and detrimental to society in driving him into the ranks of the desperate and dangerous class which might have been created.

Much as I should desire to see a very close supervision in particular cases, I do not believe that it could be effected, even to that limited extent in this country, unless the Government undertook the necessary responsibility of securing employment, and thus depriving every man of the excuse that "he must either starve or steal." This is the real secret of any great success.

It is from no disregard of the public interests, or undue desire to promote those of the convicts, that I hesitate to recommend greater restrictions on the liberty of a ticket-of-leave holder than have been already imposed. Experience of the consequences has alone led me to the conclusion that it would be very undesirable to attempt to maintain an effective system of espionage and control, even if it were clearly within the spirit of the law, or consistent with justice to do so.

These restrictions have always been an integral part of our system in the colonies, and it is satisfactory to find that a trial of them in Ireland has been attended with so much success. It furnishes an additional proof of the soundness of the system, but none whatever that it is applicable under very different circumstances. The effect of any injudicious step with the large numbers with which we have to deal, would entail years of difficulty. It is most important, therefore, that the precise object and the probable effects of any change should be most carefully weighed. Whenever a question on this subject has been raised, these points have been considered by every Secretary of State and determined as appeared to them best for the public interests.

Intermediate System.—Penal servitude, as now established at Portland, when properly worked out, is as much of a system intermediate between imprisonment and release on licence, as in my judgment is necessary for promoting the best interests of all concerned. One step further in the way of relaxation, and the interests of public justice would be sacrificed without any corresponding advantage. Frequent instances occur in which practical people, interested in the working of the Poor Law, or in the improvement of benevolent institutions, will make a minute inspection of the Refuge at Fulham, and some other of the convict establishments, with a view to the adoption of different parts of the system of industrial training and management. These are indications which cannot be safely disregarded by any one responsible for penal discipline, for they show that the utmost limit of relaxation has been reached.

This discipline was organized in 1848, under the immediate direction of Sir George Grey, by Captain Whitty and myself, and again most carefully revised in 1853 and 1857.

As we cannot now complete the third period for all convicts in the colonies, an approximation to it, pushed as far as is consistent with other interests, has been made in the second probationary period on public works, in this country, and in the Refuge for females at Fulham, where this principle has been carried to the full extent, which, in the opinion of the most experienced officers, the English convicts will bear without detriment.

As the most frightful evils had attended the formation of probation gangs or establishments for employing pass holders in Van Diemen's Land, it was at first determined that the men, on landing in Western Australia, should be dispersed as widely as possible with tickets-of-leave. It was, however, represented by the governor, that convicts on arrival were so wholly unprepared for encountering the rough life by which alone they could gain

[157]

employment in the colony, that it would be essential to employ them for six months in an intermediate stage. They were, therefore, lodged in huts, and thus gradually prepared for their future labours. This arrangement also afforded the means by which alone roads, &c., could be executed for the Government. The measures proposed for securing this object were suggested in a letter addressed by me to Sir George Grey, in 1849; and Mr. Irwin, the religious instructor, who went out last October in the ship *Palmerston*, visited the men at work.

Penal Servitude under the Acts of 1853 and 1857.—Having given an outline of the plans first determined upon by the Government in dependence upon transportation as a means of disposal, the measures taken to meet the difficulty of releasing convicts at home have to be considered.

The Act of 1853 substituted sentences of "Penal Servitude" for the great majority, that term being adopted in order to describe the condition under which a convict would work out the main part of his sentence—a condition intermediate between imprisonment and a revocable pardon, popularly known as a ticket-of-leave.

Powers were also taken for releasing on licence at home, not only the 6,700 convicts who were on hand, but those who might be sentenced under the Act of 1853. The issue of licences, or tickets-of-leave, commenced in October, 1853, and shortly created a serious panic, which greatly interfered with the chance of any one of the men obtaining employment. This has, in a degree, subsided for want of a substantial foundation to stand upon, but the feeling against this class of men remains, and it only requires the conviction of one of the thousands who are at large of a serious crime to bring it out, and increase their difficulties.

This was followed by the Act of 1857, in which the term transportation was abolished altogether from the statute book, and penal servitude substituted for it; powers were, however, taken to remove convicts to any colony willing to receive them. Another most important provision was the remission of a portion of a sentence, as an encouragement to good conduct. The question, however, arose, whether the release should be free, or with a ticket-of-leave. The latter was determined upon, though I confess to have felt doubtful of the policy. Under this latter Act convict discipline is now mainly conducted.

It is comparatively easy to legislate and lay down principles; but when we come to act upon them so as to secure the varied objects which require to be provided for, we are brought at once in contact with a wide diversity of opinion.

Some persons, in their secret hearts, consider the gallows the safest solution of the convict question. A large proportion of those who bestow a passing thought on the subject, connect a sentence with chains, hard fare, hard labour, and the lash; others would recommend the very opposite extreme, and well nigh obliterate penal features altogether; but those who have given the deepest attention to the subject in all its bearings, are brought to the conclusion that the means of reformation should be united with punishment, but that the deterring features of a sentence should predominate. In a former report, I have observed that "the present system of discipline occupies a medium position, combining these essential elements in a proportion based on experience; and there exists reason to believe that it has proved more conducive to the combined objects of repression and reformation than if any undue prominence were given either to one or the

other. The more it is sifted, the more clearly will it appear that it is founded on broad and intelligible principles, on a clear perception by the Government and committees of Parliament of the objects to be attained, and that it has been worked out in a common-sense and practical way, with a view to attain those objects." In organizing the discipline, it is found that simple deprivation of liberty for a long period is so great a punishment in itself, that there exists the opportunity of materially diminishing the purely penal features of prison discipline, and substituting the means of reformation in their place. There is, however, an obvious limit to this, for the claims of justice must never be lost sight of.

The problem is, at best, a difficult one, and the elements of discipline and instruction, encouragement and repression, require very nice adjustment. The measures adopted for its solution in the Government prisons in 1848, have been steadily worked out and improved upon to the present time, but they cannot be fairly judged without a careful study of the whole system, and a close inspection of it in full operation.

Notice to Prisoners in 1857.—When it became necessary to consider the measures required for giving effect to the altered circumstances under which the Act of 1857 was passed, the whole subject was again carefully reviewed by Sir George Grey. The accumulated experience of ten years, during which about 30,000 convicts had been subjected to discipline, was referred to, and the advice and assistance of the oldest and most competent officers sought. The principles and details of discipline which had worked so well were closely adhered to, but certain alterations were made.

The "Notice to Convicts" shows the period of probation on public works divided into three successive stages, to each of which small privileges are attached, but this is a mere outline. The whole principle of the discipline is to lead, and not to drive, to place a man's fate and condition mainly in his own hands, and to encourage and reward all efforts to do well; the foundation of the whole system being laid in moral and religious instruction, carefully imparted during the entire period of his confinement.

That great efforts are made by convicts is evident to any one who inquires into the subject, but still the question remains, what are they to do on discharge, if the means of employment be not absolutely secured?

Disposal, &c., and Means of rendering Assistance.—As already stated, we never can hope to regain the advantage afforded by release in the colonies, nor secure employment under the supervision of the police, because to brand a man as a criminal is to deprive him of his chance of obtaining it. The only practicable course is to encourage and instruct during the term of his probationary discipline, to direct and aid his exertions to earn an honest livelihood on discharge, and then to disperse widely and by emigration, if possible.

As this object is beyond the reach of the Government, and can only be effectually promoted by the co-operation and assistance of the public, it may, perhaps, not be out of place to offer a few observations upon it. The following appears in my report for 1852 on this subject:—"I observed, in 1847, that the difficulties inherent in the treatment of juvenile criminals were 'increased by the consideration that it is of no use instructing criminal children, unless they are provided for in some way on discharge.' The same observation is equally true as regards adult prisoners; for it is too obvious to need remark, that however they may have been led by the reflection which has been forced upon them in confinement, sincerely to

deplore their past career of crime, and to form good resolutions for the future, or with whatever dread of a prison the stern discipline to which they have been subjected may have inspired them, it is vain to expect they will be able to avoid a repetition of their offences, unless they can obtain the means of subsistence on discharge. What chance will they stand in the struggle against the pressure of wants which cannot be postponed, unless they receive some help in their search for employment?"

It was stated that several establishments had been formed for this purpose, and that private individuals had, in a most praiseworthy manner, exerted themselves in this useful and Christian field of action. These voluntary efforts were, however, insufficient to meet the necessities of the case, and have not done much more than to indicate a great void in our social organization, which requires to be filled. It was thus argued that, "If only on the low ground of financial expediency, Government would do well to second and stimulate these humane efforts. Many a man, whether from having been brought to see the error of his ways, or from the dread of punishment, would gladly avoid again coming within the grasp of the law, if it were in his power to maintain himself by honest industry. Without friends, or the means of employment (assuming that there are objections to the State undertaking the responsibility of finding it), what are they to do?"

Employment of discharged Prisoners by the Government.—Some have suggested the employment of discharged convicts on public works; and in any real exigency, it was proposed in 1852, that it should be attempted at Portland or Gosport. I, however, observed upon it:—

"This question has been frequently discussed, and numerous and, apparently, well considered suggestions, have been made for securing so great a desideratum in the cultivation of wild lands, the construction of harbours, fortifications, &c., by means of the labour of discharged convicts.

"The difficulties, however, of any such scheme, on a large scale, in this country, are greater than are generally imagined.

"Setting aside those which would occur in the State undertaking a duty of this kind and others which are obviously connected with such an obligation, experience is not favourable to the practice of congregating any class of criminals together, when unaccompanied by the means of effective control. There is more danger of losing the good effects of discipline and industrial training than the prospect of any advantage resulting from it. Hence the importance in extending assistance to discharged prisoners, to take measures for their dispersion, and not to congregate them together, unless circumstances should render it absolutely necessary."

Further experience has satisfied me of the soundness of these views. The success of the Prisoners' Aid Society, acting advisedly upon the principle of dispersion, and the difficulties that have attended the efforts made at several benevolent institutions, where prisoners have been collected together in the hope of reforming them, are illustrations of it. Favourable circumstances may subsequently counteract the evils, but the only safe course in this country is to take advantage of any good resolutions which a prisoner may have formed when under control, and to assist him to carry them into effect when the control ceases.

Results of the Discipline.—The broad results which have been attained, show that but a small proportion relapse into habitual or serious crime. They may be briefly summed up as follows:—9,180 orders of

licence have been issued to the directors for the release of male convicts from the different convict prisons since the commencement of the system in October 1853, out of which 834 have had their licences revoked, and 1,038 have been sentenced to penal servitude or transportation, in all they number 1,872, making 9 per cent. who have thus forfeited their licences, and 11·3 per cent. of reconvictions, or an annual percentage of 2·2 during the 7½ years of its operation. Of the 9,180 orders of licence issued, 1,363, or 14·8 per cent., were returned to convict prisons for larceny and light offences, and 509, or 5·5 per cent., for offences of a graver character, in 7½ years, being 1·9 per cent. annually of light offences, and 0·7 annually of more serious crimes. 3,307 convicts have been transferred to Western Australia during the years 1853 to 1861, out of which it may be assumed, from the reports received, that from 5 to 6 per cent. only may have relapsed into crime. This, if taken into account, would reduce the average number of relapses on the whole body subjected to the discipline.

In respect to the female convicts it will be observed in the returns that the revocations of licence have been 8½ per cent. only in 7 years and 8 months, and that the reconvictions have been of equal amount. To all this might be added a mass of most interesting and satisfactory testimony referring to individuals. No effort is made to obtain such evidence, nor would I adduce it in support of success any more than I would admit exceptional cases of failure to prove the reverse. To any one who recollects the fearful anticipations which prevailed when the abolition of transportation, as the highest of our secondary punishments, was first talked of, these results will appear almost incredible, indeed it would be difficult to assign causes for so favourable an issue under the very great difficulties which have been experienced. It was calculated in 1847 that 28,000 additional cells would be required in the Government prisons if transportation were abolished. We have only accommodation for 8,900 altogether, and there have been vacancies for nearly 1,000 for several years past.

Another remarkable feature is, that whereas a few years ago we annually got rid of some 3,000 to 4,000 of our worst criminals by deportation to a distant colony, yet now that we release the great majority at home, and have to submit to the reconviction of 12 or 14 per cent. of them, yet the number sentenced to penal servitude and transportation has been reduced from an average of 3,698 males in the five years from 1840 to 1844, to an average of 2,306 in the years from 1856 to 1860.*

There can be no question, too, that the stringency of the measures affecting discharged convicts in Ireland, and the degree of control exercised there by a centralized and most efficient police, have induced many criminals to fly the country and swell the number of convictions in England.

Whatever be the causes, the results are coincident with a general dimi-

* The number of males sentenced during the five years, from 1840 to 1844 and from 1856 to 1860, was as follows:—

In 1840	3,921	In 1856	2,431
1841	3,560	1857	2,583
1842	3,921	1858	2,130
1843	3,893	1859	2,170
1844	3,195	1860	2,219
Total				18,490	Total				11,533

being an average of 3,698 annually between 1840 and 1844, and 2,306 between 1856 and 1860.

SERIES E.

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[161]

nution of crime, and a rapidly increasing population. A candid consideration of them by any impartial person will, I trust, justify the conclusion, that the success has been as great as could have been attained under the circumstances.

APPLICATION OF THE LABOUR OF CONVICTS.

Employment during the First Period in Separation.—The profitable application of convict labour is a matter to which I have devoted much attention. During the probationary term of nine months' separate confinement, the occupations are necessarily confined to those that can be carried on in a cell, such as weaving in all its branches, mat and rug making, tailoring, shoemaking, &c., and as almost all the prisoners are learners, in consequence of the period of confinement being limited to nine months, it is not to be expected that much can be gained, but profit is not so much an object as the more important and higher purposes for which industrial training is given.

The commissioners of Pentonville lay down the objects in their earlier reports, for 1843 and 1844; they say:—"A trade is given to prisoners to improve their moral and intellectual condition, to call forth powers and faculties with which they are gifted by nature, but which previously to admission many of them had no opportunity of developing, to form permanent habits of industry. His mind is thus brought into exercise as well as his labour. He is interested in his occupation. He pursues it with eagerness, and finds it a solace and a resource, as well as a duty." In the report for 1844, it is shown that the same objects are steadily pursued. The commissioners say:—"Trades are taught at Pentonville prison with the view to the effect which such instruction must have upon the physical, moral, and intellectual condition of the prisoners. It is intended thereby to form proper habits," &c.

These being the higher objects of the employment, they are sought to be attained by requiring the prisoners undergoing separate confinement at Pentonville and Millbank, to weave the cloth, and make the clothing and shoes wanted by convicts on public works, and for the female prisons. In doing this, we have to compete by hand against the steam-power of Yorkshire and Lancashire, and the profits are, therefore, but moderate. If an average of 8*l.* a year a head is credited, we are obliged to be satisfied. The total value realized during the year at Pentonville was about 3,000*l.*, being an average of 8*l.* 4*s.* each. The weaving of prison cloth, shirting calico, towelling and canvas, linsey wolsey, serge, and flannel, together with the shoemaking, tailoring, and matmaking, &c., will be found in full detail in the report of the Governor.

Employment on Public Works.—On public works the objects being partly the same, as explained for separate confinement, there is a more extended field for the application of useful and profitable labour, and the employment of artificers in their own trades, or on occupations more likely to be of service to them in earning an honest livelihood on discharge. Above all, in inducing habits of persevering industry to replace that shapeless idleness, which has been the cause of many having first entered upon a course of crime.

It has been stated that the establishment at Portland was formed for the double object of organizing a sound system of discipline and industrial training and executing a great national work by convict labour.

The first object has been most fully accomplished under the regulations issued in 1848, and applied to suit the circumstances and promote the objects of the Government in 1853 and 1857; and as regards the second, the breakwater and fortifications, among the finest works of this century, are already imperishable monuments of what can be effected by convict labour.

The want of a proper understanding between the departments, and a deficiency in the means of superintendence for carrying on such extensive works under different departments, has operated unfavourably in some respects on the profitable application of labour. Could the breakwater and fortifications be commenced with our present experience, the convicts undertaking the whole of the works, I do not doubt that a saving of more than one-half the outlay as compared with a contract would have been effected, and the establishment would have been self-supporting.

By referring to the annexed report of the Governor of Portland for the last year, it will be seen, that the average number of men employed on the breakwater works has been 537, and the value of the labour performed 18,000*l.*, and that an average number of 281 men have been employed in excavating the great ditch of the fortifications, and that the value of the labour has been about 11,500*l.*

Thus an average working party of 818 men have executed work of the value of 29,500*l.*, being at the rate of about 36*l.* a man per annum, or an average of 14*s.* a week.

In like manner an average number of 330 men employed under the War Department have executed work of the value of 10,000*l.*, or about 30*l.* a man per annum.

All this, exclusive of work for the prison, and in repairs of clothing, cooking, washing, baking, &c.

The following trades and occupations are in full operation at Portland in addition to quarrying and excavating, in all its branches:—Blacksmiths, fitters, turners, pattern-makers, moulders, makers of machinery and implements of all kinds, plate-layers, carpenters, sawyers, stone-cutters and dressers, riggers of cranes, pointsmen on the railways, bricklayers, masons, labourers, painters, gardeners, shoemakers, tailors, washers, bakers, cooks, whitesmiths, gas-fitters, glaziers, hammock-makers, basket-makers, book-binders, &c.

The average number of non-effectives, such as men at school, sick, &c., was 191, or about one-eighth of the whole number.

The total value of the labour, exclusive of cooks, bakers, washers, tailors and shoemakers, &c., has been rather more than 40,000*l.*; this, divided by the average number of prisoners (1,520), gives, in round numbers, a rate of about 26*l.* 10*s.* for each.

The total expenses, including the civil guard, gratuities, &c., has amounted to 54,492*l.* 17*s.* 11*d.*, leaving the total cost of the prison 14,492*l.*, or about 9*l.* a man. From this must be deducted sundry receipts paid into the exchequer, 1,654*l.* 13*s.* 6*d.*

In order to derive full advantage from convict labour, it is essential the convicts should be assembled in large numbers, that the work on which it is applied should be of a nature requiring a large proportion that is unskilled, and that however great the additional trouble and responsibility, the labour should be disposed of under the superintendence of the directors and officers of the prisons. When unreservedly given up to another depart-

ment, not having the same interest in the industrial training of the men or in realizing a set-off against the expense of maintenance, much is usually wasted. It is not unfrequent to see parties of 12 or 14 men, whose wages should be worth 30s., hauling a cart which could be better done by one horse. It is not only a loss to the public, but defeats the object of the discipline. At Portland nothing of the kind is allowed.

Diet in Convict Prisons.—It is not generally known that the usual diet in the convict prisons has been determined entirely on medical grounds founded on the results of extended experience.

The subject engaged for a long period the anxious consideration of the commissioners of Pentonville. The detailed results of the elaborate experiments made under the immediate direction of Sir Benjamin Brodie and Dr. Ferguson, are given in the fifth report of the commissioners, and the following is the opinion recorded by them in their last report, dated May 1849 :—

“After the experience of seven years, our opinion remains unaltered, that the comparatively high diet established at the close of the first year (1844) is not more than sufficient.”

On opening Portland prison, a series of experiments on diet suitable for public works were also made under medical superintendence, and the present diet was not determined on until it had been conclusively pronounced to be necessary for the preservation of health, and to enable the men to execute the heavy labour required in the quarries.

It should, however, be stated that there is what is termed a “light labour” and a “special” diet adapted for the circumstances of convicts who do not exert themselves. It is, however, only in very rare instances that these scales are brought into play, the convicts as a body showing themselves willing and capable of earning the diet due to downright hard work.

Gratuities.—The following is a statement of the gratuity which might be gained by a man sentenced to four years’ penal servitude under the Act of 1857 (if exemplary during the whole period), the amount credited on liberation, varying of course with a longer or shorter sentence, according to the scale. The amount, whatever it may be, is however at the disposal of the Government for promoting the welfare of a prisoner on his discharge, and is usually paid in instalments.

Authorized Gratuities.—In separate confinement as above, nine months, 8s. 8d.; three months on public works as above, 16s. 4d.; 1st stage, 12 months, or 52 weeks, at 1s. 3d., 3l. 5s.; 2nd stage, do., at 1s. 7d., 4l. 2s. 4d.; 3rd stage, 3 months, or 13 weeks, at 1s. 11d., 1l. 4s. 5d. (the remaining 9 months being remitted): total, 9l. 16s. 9d. Annual average during a four years’ sentence, 2l. 9s. At Bermuda, where men frequently serve eight or ten years, and work at task-work, the maximum amount is much higher, but the annual amount is not more than sufficient to stimulate industry. The amount was also higher under the Act of 1853, chiefly in consequence of no remissions being granted.

CONCLUSION.

The advantages of introducing an intermediate system into the management of convicts in England, followed by discharge under close supervision of the police, having been pressed upon your attention in Parliament, it will, sir, be my duty, in compliance with your wish, to enter into expla-

nations on the subject, in order to afford you the means of forming an opinion.

It may very naturally have been inferred by some who are warm advocates of the Irish system, and who, on various considerations, have endeavoured to secure the same apparent advantages for this country, that there must either have been apathy on the part of succeeding Secretaries of State, or blame attributable to those whose more immediate duty it might be to attend to such details. I am by no means insensible to the amount of responsibility attaching to myself if there were the slightest foundation for such an inference. I, therefore, feel called upon again distinctly to repeat the opinion expressed in my report for 1857, that—

“ In looking through the system applied to Irish convicts with an anxious wish to profit by anything new that may have resulted from the ability applied by the directors in the course of their labours, I do not recognize anything in the discipline which is not directly founded on the established system in this country, or which does not possess its type in our plans. Mountjoy, as far as may be, is under the Pentonville rules; Spike Island, in like manner, is under the Portland rules, but from defects of construction they cannot be closely followed.”

“ Smithfield appears to be established on the principle of the Intermediate Prison, or Refuge for Females at Fulham, but with very imperfect means of carrying it out.”

Although it has before been explained, it appears desirable to repeat that the regulations for ticket-of-leave holders introduced into Ireland, are a small portion only of those approved by the Secretary of State for English convicts in the colonies.

Comparison of Results.—Though it may be impossible to arrive at any distinct conclusion in regard to relapses into crime, there would be no difficulty in a direct comparison of corresponding establishments.

Having fully admitted the superior advantages of Portland and Fulham for carrying on the discipline for which they were specially constructed, I should look with some degree of confidence to the result. The public know little of either the one or the other; but it may be asserted, without fear of contradiction, that they have been eminently successful in accomplishing their objects.

As regards Pentonville, the prison at Mountjoy is on an equality in point of construction; but the present convict system is based upon the moral and religious instruction established during the great experiment carried on for five years at Pentonville under the superintendence of the commissioners, the benefit of whose labours are realized at this time, and could only be effaced from the routine by the most culpable neglect. On these grounds I see reason to believe also, that in any comparison proportionate results might be relied upon. The question of a direct comparison of this nature has not, however, been raised.

I have briefly alluded to the results of the discipline in England, but find a great difficulty in attempting any fair comparison with those in Ireland, in consequence of an entire difference in the conditions. In their last report the directors state:—“ We cannot disconnect in our minds police supervision from any proposition which really aims at amending the criminal, proving his amendment, and reducing the criminal population.” Though this arrangement appears to imply a doubt of amendment, it shows clearly that the system, worked out in England without the advantages of registration

and supervision, has been subjected to a very severe test. Its great success is, therefore, the more conspicuous. Still, under such a difference in conditions, no fair comparison of results can be made, and I do not, therefore, support my conclusions by going into details. The opinions formed of the value of such restrictions in producing an apparently favourable result, are, however, fully confirmed by the experience gained in the colonies. I am not, therefore, insensible of their value where there exist the means of securing employment in connection with them, but here is the difficulty.

Without referring to the testimony of the industry and good conduct of the men in Van Diemen's Land, I would take our most recent experience of the English system in Western Australia as clearly showing the effect. And give the following in further explanation.

A convict is embarked from this country after having gone through the admirable training of Pentonville and Portland. He first encounters the demoralization inseparable from herding men of the criminal class together on a voyage. On arrival in the colony, he passes some six months more in an intermediate stage under no effective control, and where it is impossible to introduce the ameliorating influences which might be assumed to have a favourable effect on his moral character. He then either obtains or is furnished with full employment, registers his abode, and is placed under the close supervision of the police.

In the opinion of the most experienced well-wishers to the convict, he would lose ground morally both during the voyage and whilst working on the roads under an intermediate or probationary system. It has been argued against such ordeals that they are calculated to undo all the good that might have been secured under previous training.

In spite, however, of these heavy trials and drawbacks, it is a significant indication of the effect of such measures that, either for lack of opportunities or fear of consequences, crime is reduced to a percentage of relapses far below the satisfactory results obtained either in England or Ireland; this, too, under circumstances where no man can fly the country to find a fresh field or escape from control.

The fact is that, although restrictions are unnecessary in the case of the many who intend to do well if they can, they operate with a repressive effect on the few who would do evil if they could. If the sheep could be divided from the goats, one great difficulty in dealing with the subject would be removed; but the question is whether it would not be both unjust and impolitic to subject the majority to the prejudicial consequences of restrictions on their liberty in this country for the sake of a more effective control over the minority, who alone require them?

Mr. Organ, the talented lecturer of Smithfield and Lusk Intermediate Prisons, graphically puts one question in a very clear light in the last report for 1860, where he says:—

"England, 'the home of the brave and the free,' calls upon us to take care how we interfere with the rights of her free subjects, even of this class. Ireland says, subject them to surveillance, lest they violate again, unseen and unknown, the privileges allowed the honest labouring members of society, and thus roam at large the abettors of infamy and vice. Here, I say, is one of the great points at issue between the advocates of the English and Irish systems."

I would direct particular attention to this point, as it brings into view

almost the only question (excepting that of providing work) which requires to be disposed of by the Secretary of State.

It is not, as may be supposed, the mere introduction into the English system of certain relaxations before discharge; but the enforcement of stringent regulations after it, that is the real point at issue. The former can best be judged of by experienced officers accustomed to estimate the effect of measures for which they are to become responsible; the latter is nothing less than the introduction of a novel and great principle affecting the liberty of a particular class, and involving within its range far more important and serious considerations. Of the effect of branding a man as a criminal, I have already given my opinion, and though it certainly may appear an anomaly to concede the privileges of freedom even to the conditionally pardoned, yet, as already explained, it is essential, in the absence of finding employment, to afford them a fair chance of doing so for themselves, and only to enforce the conditions on those who may be detected in the infringement of them. I would not, however, do more than point out the difficulty of carrying into effect any general restrictions in respect to convicts which would not entail greater evils than those which it might be proposed to remedy.

In a former report Mr. Organ also confirms the impression of many other prison officers, that it is unsafe to form opinions in regard to the character of a prisoner whilst under restraint of any kind. He says:—

“The results of my experience amongst them in this way have long since led me to believe that a more perfect knowledge of the real character of prisoners can be acquired by close observation for the first two days after discharge, when they are free and feel themselves uncontrolled and independent, than can be derived from any experience of them whilst inmates of a gaol.

“My practical experience of their characters, both inside and outside of the prison, convinces me that the opinion I now advance is correct.”

The same impression of a character acquired in prison exists in the public mind of this country, and in too strong a form to be materially affected by the apparent results of any system of moral and industrial training. The stigma due to crime remains uneffaced by the effort. It is a retribution (and a wholesome one too) inflicted by society upon any one who forfeits his good name. The convict never wholly regains his position, though, according to his conduct, facilities for obtaining employment will gradually increase. In every point of view it is therefore desirable to afford a fair chance to all, surrounded as they are by great difficulties. The Government cannot interfere with effect, but a wide field is open for the energies of the philanthropist.

Other points of difference might be mentioned if a fair comparison of results were attempted. An organized police is at the disposal of the authorities in Ireland, for an object admitted to be essential to success. Here we derive little or no assistance from the police of the country. Again, convicts on license and the criminal class generally are stated to be so effectually controlled in Ireland, that there exists no scope for the exercise of their calling. It may, therefore, be inferred that many leave the country. Much encouragement is also afforded to the better disposed to emigrate, and it is stated that nearly one-half of those discharged last year were so disposed of. No more favourable outlet could possibly be secured, but it must be borne in mind that the diminution of numbers arising from

these causes will materially affect the data on which to calculate the proportion of relapses. It should also be recollected, in regard to emigration, that what is quite practicable with very limited numbers cannot be even attempted on a large scale.

These and many other circumstances, however, tend to modify any calculations that might be attempted, and, unless due allowance were made, would operate greatly to our disadvantage in comparing results.

Another point of difference should here be mentioned; a considerable outlay is now incurred in England in maintaining a civil guard and a larger staff of officers in order to ensure "safe custody," for which the governors are officially responsible. So long as convicts are detained within a prison, the boundary wall, with bars and bolts, will accomplish this; but when they are removed by hundreds, miles from the prison, to execute national works, and earn the cost of their maintenance, additional precautions are obviously necessary. The convict pants for liberty above all other things, and is therefore not unlikely to balance his chances of escape and recapture, and try his fortune when he has a fair opportunity. The governor, on the other hand, has to see to it that the several means on which he can rely for preventing escape are sufficient for the purpose. There is much honour among thieves, one with another, but not enough to trust to between a convict and those who stand between him and freedom. If, however, he should be within a few months of discharge, the inducement must be very strong to make him run away; it then becomes his interest to remain, and that may be trusted. Large parties of men, so circumstanced, have been moved into the unfinished prisons of Chatham, Brixton, and Woking, &c., in order to assist in their completion. When so employed, but little precaution that is apparent is exercised, or is indeed necessary.

Foreigners and others who may chance to see them always express great astonishment, and form very erroneous conclusions as to causes and effects, until it is explained that they have too much at stake to run the risk.

In Western Australia none of these precautions are necessary, for successful escapes into the colony or out of it are rendered all but impossible. The sagacity of the aborigines, applied under the direction of a good police, enables them to track a convict who has been reckless enough to run away, and his eventual capture is certain. In like manner in Ireland the admirable organization and vigilance of the police must be too well known to render necessary extra precautions to prevent escapes. Hence, the convict estimates in Ireland are not burdened with the same charges, and the expense becomes apparently less.

Among other advantages, too, under which the system is worked in Ireland, mention might be made of those which result from the superior organization of the Roman Catholic laity for charitable purposes, which is especially valuable as applied to females. Reference may also be made to the practically unattainable benefits enjoyed by a proportion of the male prisoners. Not only is Mr. Organ qualified to give lectures to the convicts sufficiently interesting and instructive to command attention if delivered before a numerous audience of the middle and higher classes, but his natural energy and benevolence lead him cheerfully and zealously to attend to the individual interests of all who may be released within his reach. These qualifications and attainments, together with a lengthened experience among the poor, have been concentrated on an average number in custody

not much exceeding 100. As we discharge about 2,500 annually, such advantages could only be secured by incurring a large, and what I believe might justly be considered an outlay altogether disproportionate to any reasonable expectations of advantage.

The conclusions at which I arrived after careful consideration of the whole subject in all its bearings, were thus brought under consideration of the Secretary of State and Parliament in my report for 1857, and further experience has not led to any change in my opinions.

"First. The character of the convicts in this country and the circumstances differ so much from those in Ireland, that any plan for congregating them together under less control than is at present exercised would not be calculated to render them more fit for discharge, or give the officers to whose care they might be consigned a better, or even the same, opportunity of judging of their character, as those which exist at present.

"Secondly. That even if such objects could be obtained by removing selected convicts into separate small intermediate establishments, with diminished control and more voluntary action, the exhibition of convict discipline in such a form would impair the exemplary character and deterrent effects of a sentence of penal servitude, which on all accounts it is most essential to preserve as the most formidable of our secondary punishments.

"Thirdly. That, however desirable it may be in a penal colony, and however successful in Ireland, it would be impossible in this country to carry out any general superintendence over discharged prisoners by the police without interfering with the means of their obtaining employment, and thus a greater evil would be created than any good which could possibly follow."

In again submitting these objections to the introduction either of a relaxed intermediate system before discharge, or to increased restrictions after it, I painfully feel, sir, the responsibility of opposing measures which have been pressed upon your attention by many whose opinions are deserving of the greatest respect. I find some relief, however, in the reflection that some who have expressed the strongest opinions have never even casually visited the English convict prisons, and are, perhaps, unaware of the objects which have been kept in view by successive Secretaries of State during the last fifteen years, or of the means which have been successfully matured for giving effect to them. But few also are aware of the real points at issue, and that in the absence of the means of emigration on a large scale, and the Government declining to become responsible for employment the most serious difficulties have to be encountered by all concerned.

It is only under a comprehensive view of these objects and by a patient and careful study of the measures through which they are sought to be attained, that the merits of the system can be appreciated. To be understood, it must be seen in operation, and that not superficially, but closely inquired into step by step. The nice adjustment of the elements of encouragement and repression, the precise objects aimed at, and the great success which has attended the working of the different plans, would then become apparent, and the whole would furnish much instructive evidence in relation to the convict question.

Had this course been followed by any impartial person, or had measures been taken for keeping the subject constantly before the public, I venture

to hope that more justice would have been done to the system, as well as to the labours of all concerned in originating and maturing it.

There are few subjects, however, on which a greater diversity of opinion may prevail. It is hopeless to aim at any standard which shall insure unanimity, or obtain results which shall be deemed sufficient. Defects there must and will be in all human institutions, especially when regarded from very different points of view. Though no one can be more interested in the success of a system, for the defects of which I am willing to take a full share of responsibility, my experience would scarcely enable me to suggest any material improvement in one direction, which would not entail a corresponding inconvenience in another, or increase expense beyond its useful effect.

Many points and difficulties such as those which have been adverted to are lost sight of in the eagerness of advocating any particular scheme. They may be said to lie beneath the surface, and are all the more dangerous and likely to cause a wreck.

More organized and satisfactory means of assisting well-disposed prisoners on discharge are very desirable, and some stringent measures for dealing with incorrigible offenders might be effected with advantage. A more strict enforcement of the conditions of the licence appears also to be required, and then, I believe, the system of management and disposal established in this country would be, in its main essentials, as well adapted to meet the circumstances with which we have to deal as it is possible to make it, consistently with a due regard to economy. There exists, however, facilities for extending to male convicts the intermediate system of the Refuge at Fulham, or for imposing more of the restrictions enforced in Western Australia, though, for the reasons assigned, I am not prepared to recommend such measures.

It may be observed, in proof of the simplicity of the system, that it has been worked with much less superintendence than has been deemed adequate for one-fourth of the number in Ireland. Of its soundness we may judge by its not having been perceptibly disturbed by the cessation of transportation and the other great changes that have occurred, also by its being thoroughly understood by the convicts, and its consistency and the care taken of their individual interests appreciated by them.

In order, however, to secure all the advantages which might be derived from the existing organization in the prisons, I would again bring under your consideration the necessity of increased means of superintendence. It is absolutely impossible for two directors, with such assistance as I can give in connection with other duties, to bestow that personal attention on the working of the system which is desirable, or to attend to all the questions that arise in connection with the discipline and disposal of 8,000 convicts, for which they are in a measure responsible. The application of the labour of so large a body would alone require the undivided attention of one director, and the moral training and instruction of another.

I would state in conclusion that many years have been devoted to a close study of the complicated question, What shall we do with our convicts? Much valuable experience on a very large scale has been gained, and many important occasions have arisen where the whole subject has been most anxiously reconsidered by successive Secretaries of State. This has created a confidence in former decisions, and given a stability to the system, which, in my opinion, it would not be desirable to disturb. Under the blessing of

God, results have been achieved which, though generally unknown, have demonstrated the efficiency both of its principles and the details under which they are applied. Of this I have endeavoured to afford such proofs and information as will, I trust, be sufficient to support the conclusions I have ventured to submit, and enable you to form a definite opinion upon the subjects referred to. I would not desire to do more.

J. JERR.

NOTICE TO CONVICTS UNDER SENTENCE OF PENAL SERVITUDE PASSED
SUBSEQUENT TO THE 1ST JULY, 1857.

The regulations applicable to convicts under sentences of penal servitude, passed after 1st September, 1853, will be generally applicable to convicts sentenced under the Act of 1857. They are as follows:—

All convicts under sentence of penal servitude will be subjected to a period of separate confinement, followed by labour on public works.

Separate Confinement.—1. Convicts, as a general rule, will be detained in separate confinement for a period of nine months from the date of their reception in a Government prison, and will be classified according to their conduct and industry.

2. Every convict who, during a detention of six months in the prison, may have conducted himself in a satisfactory manner, will be allowed to wear a badge, which will entitle him to receive a visit from his friends. A second badge, with the privilege of a second visit, will be granted at the end of three additional months, provided his conduct has continued to be satisfactory.

3. Convicts wearing badges will be recommended for gratuities to be placed to their credit, according to the scale approved by the Secretary of State.

4. In the event of a convict being deprived of a badge through misconduct, he will at the same time forfeit all advantages he had derived from it, including the gratuity already credited to him (if so ordered). He may, however, regain the forfeited badge after an interval of one month, if specially recommended by the governor.

5. On removal of convicts from separate confinement to public works, they will be placed in the first, second, or third class, according to their conduct, attention to instruction, and industry. This classification will affect their position in the following stages of their penal servitude.

6. Convicts deemed to be incorrigible will be specially dealt with, under a more severe form of discipline.

Public Works.—On the reception of a convict on public works, the remaining term of his sentence, reckoning 12 months from conviction, will be divided into three portions or stages of discipline, any odd weeks or months being placed in the first stage.

Discipline of the first Stage.—Convicts undergoing the first of the three portions of penal servitude on public works, will be subject to the ordinary discipline of the prison, and be classified as usual in first, second, and third class, receiving the usual gratuities, &c.

Second Stage, comprising one-third of the Period on Public Works.—1. Convicts, during this stage, will be permitted to write and receive letters and have visits every second month.

[171]

2. They may also receive an addition of 4*d.* to the ordinary weekly gratuity to which they may be otherwise entitled, if the reports of their industry be favourable.

3. Some addition to their dinner on Sunday will be allowed.

4. A badge denoting the promotion to this stage will be worn by each convict.

5. Convicts under sentence of five years and upwards, may be recommended for an earlier removal to the third stage for uniform good conduct and industry.

Third Stage of the Period on Public Works.—1. Convicts who gain this stage will have the privilege of writing and receiving letters and having visits monthly.

2. An addition of 4*d.* a week to the gratuity of the second stage, making 8*d.* additional to the ordinary gratuity, may be granted to convicts in this stage, if the reports of their industry be favourable.

3. An occasional variety of diet will be allowed.

4. Tea may be also substituted for gruel at supper, if preferred.

5. A different dress from that of ordinary convicts will be worn.

6. An additional badge, denoting the promotion to this stage, will be granted.

Effects of Misconduct, &c.—If unfavourable report should be received of a convict from separate confinement, or his conduct on public works be unsatisfactory, or only moderately good, or if he be not industrious, his progress towards the advantages of the several stages will be proportionately retarded, and he will be liable for misconduct to be removed back into any previous stage, or to separate confinement.

Removal to Western Australia.—A certain number of convicts will, from time to time, be selected from among the convicts employed upon public works, for removal to Western Australia or other penal colony, such selection being made, as far as circumstances will permit, from among those whose sentences are for terms of seven years and upwards.

Remission.—1. The sentences under the Act of 1857 have been passed with a view to certain fixed terms of imprisonment and hard labour being in all cases inflicted; at the same time allowing a convict, by good conduct, to render himself eligible for a remission of the remainder.

2. In carrying this into effect, it will be necessary to make a distinction between those convicts who are removed to a penal colony such as Western Australia, and those who are retained at home stations, or at Gibraltar or Bermuda, with a view to their ultimate release in this country.

3. Those who may be selected for removal to a penal colony, will be required to undergo a period of imprisonment with hard labour, equal to about one-half the term of their sentences, before they become eligible for a ticket-of-leave.

4. Those who are to be released in this country, will be required to undergo a longer period of imprisonment and hard labour upon public works, varying with the term of the original sentence, being eligible for a remission only of from one-sixth to one-third of the term, instead of one-half.

5. The following table will show the number of months and the proportions of sentences which may be remitted as a reward for good conduct and willing industry :—

Sentence to Penal Servitude for	May be remitted on Good Conduct.	Term to be undergone.	Proportion which may be remitted.
3 years	6 months ...	2 years and 6 months ...	One-sixth.
4 "	9 " ...	3 years and 3 months ...	One-fifth.
5 "	12 " ...	4 years	Ditto.
6 "	18 " ...	4 years and 6 months ...	One-fourth.
7 "	21 " ...	5 years and 3 months ...	Ditto.
8 "	24 " ...	6 years	Ditto.
10 "	30 " ...	7 years and 6 months ...	Ditto.
12 "	36 " ...	9 years	Ditto.
15 years and upwards	One-third.

Sentences for Life.—6. Sentences for life will be considered by the Secretary of State, according to the special circumstances of each case.

When the circumstances of the crime may justify the application to a convict under sentence for life of the same rules as are enforced on others for shorter terms, he may be eligible, if removed to a colony, to have his case considered after undergoing imprisonment with hard labour for at least eight years; but if not removed to a penal colony, he will not be eligible to have his case considered with a view to a remission until he has undergone at least 12 years of his sentence.

1st.—The accommodation for convicts at the disposal of the Government is as follows :—

ESTABLISHMENTS AT HOME FOR MALE AND FEMALE CONVICTS.

Prisons for Separate Confinement of Male Convicts.—Millbank, 600; Pentonville, 561; Wakefield, cells in county or borough prisons rented by the Government, 412; Leicester, cells in county or borough prisons rented by the Government, 112: total in separate confinement, 1,685.

Prisons for Public Works.—Portland, 1,520; Portsmouth, 1,020; Chatham, 1,100; Parkhurst (for juveniles), 549.

Invalid Depôts.—Dartmoor (light labour), 1,206; Woking Prison (serious cases), 350; Woking Prison (able-bodied assisting in the completion of the prison), 98: total accommodation for male convicts, 7,528.

Establishments for Female Convicts.—Millbank, 550; Brixton, 645; Fulham, 176: total accommodation for male and female convicts, 8,899.

2nd. Number and disposal of male convicts during the year 1860 :—

Disposal of Male Convicts for the Year 1860.—On the 1st January the number of convicts remaining in convict prisons was 6,934; received during the year 1860, 2,504: total convict population during the year, 9,438; disposed of during the year, 2,731; remaining on 31st December, 1860, 6,707.

3rd. Number and disposal of female convicts during the year 1860 :—

On the 1st January, 1860, the number of female convicts in convict prisons was 1,188; received during the year 1860, 531: total female convict population during the year, 1,719; disposed of during the year, 436; remaining on 31st December, 1860, 1,283. General total of convicts remaining on the 31st December, 1860—Males, 6,707; females, 1,283: total, 7,984. General total of males and females in the convict prisons of England during the year 1860, 11,157.

The number of male convicts who have been removed to the colonies during the last five years was as follows :—In 1856, to Western Australia, 500; to Bermuda, nil; to Gibraltar, 376. In 1857, to Western Australia, 532; to Bermuda, 300; to Gibraltar, 400. In 1858, to Western Australia, 550; to Bermuda, 620; to Gibraltar, nil. In 1859, to Western Australia, 224; to Bermuda, 280; to Gibraltar, 140. In 1860, to Western

[173]

Australia, 296; to Bermuda, nil; to Gibraltar, nil. In the five years to Western Australia, 2,102; to Bermuda, 1,200; to Gibraltar, 916. Total, in 1856, 876; in 1857, 1,232; in 1858, 1,170; in 1859, 644; in 1860, 296. Total in five years, 4,218.

The percentage per annum of male convicts returned to convict prisons, either by revocation of licence, or under fresh sentences to penal servitude or transportation, during the seven and a half years the system has been in operation, was as follows:—

Year.	Number of Prisoners licensed.	Period within which the Relapses occurred.		Annual percentage of Relapses on the whole number.
		Years.	Months.	
From Oct. to Dec. 31st, 1853 ...	335	7	6	1·5
Year 1854	1,895	7	3	2·2
" 1855	2,528	6	3	4·1
" 1856	2,007	5	3	5·5
" 1857	674	4	3	5·1
" 1858	318	3	3	4·5
" 1859	260	2	3	4·0
" 1860	818	1	3	1·5
To 31st March, 1861	345	—	3	—

As regards the nature of the crimes for which the 834 male convicts had their licences only revoked, and the 1,038 who have been reconvicted for fresh offences, the following is an analysis:—*The Lighter Offences.*—Larceny, 650; offences against Vagrant Act, 126; assault on police, 34; desertion, 18; picking pockets, 27; wilful damage, 14; assault, 118; offences against game laws, 21; theft, misdemeanor, and other offences, 355: total, 1,363. *Offences of a graver Character.*—Murder, 2; forgery, uttering forged notes, or base coin, 44; burglary, 106; robbery, 41: robbery, with violence, 16; highway robbery, 6; cutting and wounding with intent, 6; felony, housebreaking, sheep stealing, &c., 284; arson, 4: total, 509. During the same period there were issued 764 licences to female convicts, and of these, 65, or 8·5 per cent., were revoked, and 65, or 8·5, were reconvicted. Total, 130.

RESTRICTIONS ON TICKET-OF-LEAVE HOLDERS. THE GOVERNMENT UNDERTAKING TO FIND EMPLOYMENT.

Extract from the Notice suspended in the Cells of all Convict Prisons in England from 1848 to 1853, referring to the Tickets-of-Leave.

"1. Rules and regulations for the maintenance of good order amongst ticket-of-leave holders are framed and promulgated in a colony. The following are at present some of their principal conditions, but it must be distinctly understood that they are liable to be varied, as may be judged to be necessary and proper by the authorities on the spot:—

"2. A convict embarked from this country as a ticket-of-leave holder, will not pass out of the custody of the Government in the colony, until he shall be engaged, for at least a year, for service with some private employer, who shall be responsible for making a certain payment, as hereafter explained in paragraph five. If suitable service cannot be obtained, the

[174]

convicts will be employed by Government at wages, out of which they will receive clothing and rations. A small proportion will be paid to them in money, and the remainder credited towards the liquidation of the amount required to be paid to the Government.

"3. The ticket-of-leave holder is required to remain in a particular district, within which he may hire himself out for wages. This is usually a country district, and he must not quit it without obtaining a pass from a magistrate; he must register his place of residence, and any change of it; he must be at his own dwelling from ten o'clock at night until daybreak; and he must report himself at certain periods in the year at the police-office of his district. For some classes of offences he is liable to summary jurisdiction, and his ticket-of-leave may be recalled for misconduct, in which case he will be subjected to penal labour."

TICKET-OF-LEAVE HOLDERS IN PRIVATE SERVICE.

Extracts from the Regulations for Holders of Tickets-of-Leave in Western Australia, 1850. See page 130 of my Report for 1854.

1. All tickets-of-leave are issued for particular districts, named in the tickets-of-leave; or passports are allowed to enable the holders to remain in the service of their masters beyond the boundaries of their district.

2. Every man holding a ticket-of-leave is required, within seven days after his arrival in his district, to report himself, either personally or in writing, to the nearest resident magistrate, for the information of the comptroller-general, giving his name, the ship he arrived in, his master or employer, his trade or calling, or his mode of maintaining himself, and his rate of wages; and also, to do so between the 1st and the 14th January, and the 1st and 14th of June in each year, to the nearest resident magistrate.

3. Every ticket-of-leave holder is required to report to the comptroller-general every change of service or residence within the district, within fourteen days of its taking place, and to obtain the sanction of a magistrate in the meantime.

8. No ticket-of-leave holder is to be absent from his district without a pass, except in the exercise of his duty as a constable.

12. Any ticket-of-leave holder absconding from his district will be charged with the whole amount of the expenses incurred in his capture.

15. No ticket-of-leave holder is allowed to be absent from his employer's house, or his regular place of abode, after ten o'clock at night, without a pass signed by his employer, when on business, or by a police or other magistrate.

35. Ticket-of-leave men who are unable to meet with private employment on these terms, will be found work by the Government, and will be allowed credit for the value of their labours at a fair rate of wages. The ticket-of-leave holder will be paid a portion of his earnings in money.

TICKET-OF-LEAVE HOLDERS NOT IN PRIVATE SERVICE, BUT WORKING FOR THE GOVERNMENT.

Regulations for Ticket-of-Leave Men in Dépôt, and employed on Public Works in Western Australia, 1850. See page 136 of my Report for 1851.

1. Ticket-of-leave men employed on public works will receive a fair rate of wages for the quantity of work performed.

[175]

2. In ordinary cases the wages for each man will be, for the present, the current rate of wages, viz., 12*l.* per annum, and rations.

3. Wherever practicable, the men will be employed on job work, whereby, through extra exertion, they may earn extra wages.

4. Each man will be entitled to receive a weekly payment in cash, not exceeding 3*s.* per week, out of his earnings.

5. Each man must be provided with a decent suit of clothes, and a good pair of shoes, or boots, and a hat, or cap.

6. The men will be paraded every Sunday morning for divine service, and must appear decently dressed.

7. Any man not provided with a decent suit of clothes, will not be allowed any cash or extras until he is so provided.

8. Each man will be subject to a deduction from his earnings, on account of passage money, to the amount of 5*l.* per annum, until the whole of his passage money be paid, after which, should he remain upon Government works, he will be entitled to the whole of his wages, the balance of which, after deducting for such supplies as he may have drawn, and for such sums as he may have received in weekly payments in cash, will be paid to him on leaving the Government works.

9. Arrangements will be made for enabling the men to purchase such necessaries as they may require, but no man will be allowed to run into debt.

10. Any ticket-of-leave holder returned by his master for misconduct will, after undergoing such punishment as may be awarded, be required to work for his rations only.

11. Ticket-of-leave holders guilty of drunkenness or other disorderly conduct, in addition to such punishment as may be awarded, will not be allowed to receive any cash or orders, except for absolute necessities.

12. The practice of selling either clothing, soap, or tobacco, purchased out of their earnings, is hereafter strictly forbidden, and any man found guilty of so doing will be liable to forfeiture of his ticket-of-leave.

13. No ticket-of-leave man is, on any account, to be absent from the works, or after roll-call at night, without permission from the officer in charge.

14. No ticket-of-leave man is allowed to make an engagement for a less period than 12 months, and must be settled with up to the time of his leaving the station, as no accounts will be kept open.

15. As soon as a ticket-of-leave holder has paid the regulated sum on account of his passage, he will not any longer be obliged to make engagements by the year, but will be at liberty to make engagements for any periods he may choose, within the limits of his district, and be allowed to take service in the towns of Perth and Freemantle.

16. Ticket-of-leave men on public works are equally subject to the General Regulations for ticket-of-leave holders, so far as they do not interfere with these special rules.

Restrictions applied to Ticket-of-Leave Holders in England, 1853.

The only part of the colonial system adopted in England has been the ticket-of-leave or revocable pardon. The following is printed on the back of each :—

Notice to Convicts released on Licence in England (1853).

1. This licence is liable to be revoked in case of misconduct.
2. It may be revoked in the case of the holder of it being convicted of

[176]

any new offence, unless the punishment for that offence extends beyond the term of his former sentence. But it is not necessary that the holder should be convicted of any new offence. If he associates with notoriously bad characters, and leads an idle and dissolute life, with no visible means of obtaining an honest livelihood, he will be liable to be recommitted to prison under his original sentence.

3. If his licence is revoked, he may have to undergo the whole remaining portion of his original sentence.

These plans have been more largely developed in Ireland. The following are the present provisions :—

Memorandum.—Registration and Supervision of Convicts on Ticket of Licence.

“ Dublin Castle, 1st January, 1857.

“ 1. When an offer of employment for a prisoner is accepted, a notification thereof will be made by the directors of Government prisons to the Inspector-General of Constabulary, by whom it will be transmitted to the constabulary of the locality in which the employment is to be given, with all necessary particulars, for the purpose of being entered in a register at the constabulary station.

“ 2. Each convict so to be employed will report himself at the appointed constabulary station (the name of which will be given to him) on his arrival in the district, and subsequently on the 1st of each month.

“ 3. A special report is to be made to head-quarters by the constabulary whenever they shall observe a convict on licence guilty of misconduct or leading an irregular life.

“ 4. A convict is not to change his locality without notifying the circumstances at the constabulary station, in order that his registration may be transferred to the place to which he is about to proceed. On his arrival he must report himself to the nearest constabulary station (of the name of which he is to be informed), and such transfer is to be reported to head-quarters for the information of the directors of Government prisons.

“ 5. An infringement of these rules by the convict will cause it to be assumed that he is leading an idle irregular life, and therefore entail the revocation of his licence.

“ 6. Further regulations may hereafter be added to the foregoing should they become necessary.”

Regulations for Convicts released on Licence in Ireland (1857).

1. Each convict will report himself to the constabulary station of his locality on his arrival in the district, and subsequently on the 1st of each month.

2. A convict must not change his locality without notifying to his constabulary station, in order that his registration may be changed to the locality to which he is about to proceed.

3. An infringement of these rules by the convict will cause it to be assumed that he is leading an idle and irregular life, and thereby entail a revocation of his licence.

DIVORCE BILLS.

Return of Petitions presented to the House of Lords for Divorce Bills, and of Bills introduced thereon, in each Session from 1800 to 1860, both inclusive; distinguishing the Ecclesiastical Court in which the Proceedings giving rise to each such Petition were had, and stating also whether each such Bill became Law. (Lord Monteagle of Brandon.) 11th April, 1861. (62.)

IN 1800, there was one petition in the consistory court of London. In 1802, there were ten petitions: five in the consistory court of London, two in the consistory court of Rochester, one in the consistory court of Chester, one in the consistory court of the dean and chapter of Westminster. In 1802, there were four petitions, all in the consistory court of London. In 1803, two petitions: one in the consistory court of Canterbury, and one in that of York. In 1804, two petitions: one in the ecclesiastical court of Dublin, and one in the consistory court of London. In 1805, five petitions in the consistory court of London. In 1806 and 1807 two petitions each year in the same court. In 1808, two petitions: one in the consistory court of Dublin, and one in the ecclesiastical court of Ireland. In 1809, there were six petitions: three in the consistory court of London; one in the arches court of Canterbury, one in the consistory court of London, and one in that of Winchester. In 1810, there were two petitions in the consistory court of London. In 1811, three petitions: two in the consistory court of London, and one in the consistorial and metropolitan court of Dublin. In 1812, two petitions in the same courts. In 1813, four petitions: one in the ecclesiastical court of the dean and chapter of St. Paul's; two in the ecclesiastical court of London, and one in the ecclesiastical court of Cloyne, Ireland. In 1814, four petitions: one in the arches court of Canterbury, one in the consistory court of the dean and chapter of Westminster, one in the ecclesiastical court, and one in the consistorial court of London. In 1815, four petitions: two in the consistorial court of London, and two in the arches court of Canterbury. In 1816, three petitions: two in the consistory court, and one in the arches court. In 1817, four petitions: one in the ecclesiastical court of Canterbury, one in the ecclesiastical court of London, one in the ecclesiastical court of Sodor and Man, and one in the consistorial court of the Bishop of London. In 1818, two petitions in the consistory courts of Dublin and London. In 1819, six petitions: three in the consistory courts of Dublin, Exeter, and London, one in the arches court, and one in the registry of the peculiar of the Archbishop of Canterbury. In 1820, three petitions: two in the consistory court of London, and one in the supreme court of Calcutta. In 1821, two petitions in the consistory courts of Canterbury and London. In 1822, one petition in the consistory court of Dublin. In 1823, four petitions: two in the supreme court of Madras, one in the supreme court of Calcutta, and one in the consistory court of London. In 1825, seven petitions: two in the consistorial court of London, one in the consistorial court of Dublin, one in the supreme court of Madras, one in the registry of arches court of Canterbury, one in the arches court of Canterbury. In 1826, seven petitions: two in the consistory court of London, two in the consistory court of Dublin, two in the registry of court of peculiars of see of Canterbury, and one in the ecclesiastical courts of London and Canterbury. In 1827, one petition in the arches court of Canterbury. In 1828, three petitions: one in the supreme court of Madras,

[178]

one in the arches court of Canterbury, and one in the ecclesiastical court of Bengal. In 1829, there were six petitions: three in the consistory court of London, one in the arches court of Canterbury, one in the registry court of peculiars, one in the consistory court of Dublin. In 1830, ten petitions: four in the consistory court of London, three in the arches court, one in the supreme court of indicature at Ceylon, one in the consistory court of Gloucester, and one in the consistory court of Canterbury. In 1831, eight petitions, seven of which were in the consistory court of London, and one in the consistory court of Westminster. In 1832, three petitions: two in the consistory court of London, and one in that of Westminster. In 1833, two petitions: one in the supreme court at Madras, and one in the consistory court of London. In 1834, six petitions: one in the consistory court of London, one in that of Rochester, one in that of Bristol, two in the supreme court of Ceylon, and one in that at Madras. In 1835, three petitions: two in the consistory court of London, and one in that of Dublin. In 1836, two petitions: one at Carmarthen, and one in London. In 1837, two petitions: one at the arches court of Canterbury, and one at the supreme court of Madras. In 1838, three petitions: two in the supreme court at Madras, and one in the consistory court of London. In 1839, eleven petitions: four in the consistory court of London, one in that of York, one in that of Dublin, two in the arches court, and two in the supreme court at Madras. In 1840, nine petitions: five in the consistory court of London, one in that of Chester, one in the commissary court, one in the arches court, and one in the supreme court of Bombay. In 1841, six petitions: three in the consistory court, one in the arches court, one in Calcutta, and one in Bombay. In 1842, nine petitions: of which seven were in the consistory court of London, one in that of Cork and Ross, and one in the arches court. In 1843, seven petitions: two in the supreme court of Bengal, three in the consistory court of London, one in the arches court, one before the dean and chapter of St. Paul's. In 1844, two petitions in the consistory court of London. In 1845, five petitions: four in the consistory court of London, and one in Dublin. In 1846, six petitions: three in the consistory court of London, two in the arches court, and one in the supreme court of Bengal. In 1847, four petitions: three in London, and one in Calcutta. In 1848, four petitions: three in London, and one in Exeter. In 1849, seven petitions: six in the consistory court, and one in the arches court. In 1850, seven petitions, all in the consistory court of London. In 1851, five petitions, all in the same court. In 1852, three petitions: two in the consistory court of London, one in the commissary court of Surrey. In 1853, five petitions: two in London, one in Madras, and one in Bristol. In 1854, four petitions: two in the arches court, one in the supreme court of Bengal, one in the consistory court of London. In 1855, four petitions: two in the supreme courts of Bombay and Bengal, one in the consistory court at London, and one in that of Bristol. In 1856 there were four petitions: two in London, one at Bombay, and one at Dublin. In 1857, three in London, and one in Canterbury. In 1858, one in the supreme court at Bombay, in 1859, one in India, and in 1860, nil.

PROBATE ACT (DISTRICT REGISTRIES).

A Return of the Amount of Stamp Duty paid in the Year 1860, on the Grants of Probate and Letters of Administration in the District Registries created under the Probate Act, 1857; distinguishing the separate Amounts paid in each District Registry. (Mr. Gore Langton.) 1st May, 1861. (209.)

THE amount of stamp duty paid on probates and letters of administration in the different places of registry in England and Wales was as follows:—London, 708,333*l.*; Bangor, 1,622*l.*; Birmingham, 20,738*l.*; Blandford, 8,665*l.*; Bodmin, 6,717*l.*; Bristol, 24,446*l.*; Bury St. Edmunds, 5,081*l.*; Carlisle, 11,424*l.*; Carmarthen, 1,667*l.*; Canterbury, 5,764*l.*; Chester, 22,459*l.*; Chichester, 3,486*l.*; Derby, 8,860*l.*; Durham, 11,760*l.*; Exeter, 23,057*l.*; Gloucester, 13,302*l.*; Hereford, 6,334*l.*; Ipswich, 9,579*l.*; Lancaster, 13,667*l.*; Leicester, 9,745*l.*; Lewes, 8,881*l.*; Lichfield, 12,536*l.*; Lincoln, 17,271*l.*; Liverpool, 25,939*l.*; Llandaff, 6,745*l.*; Manchester, 35,240*l.*; Newcastle-upon-Tyne, 7,655*l.*; Norwich, 12,653*l.*; Northampton, 4,478*l.*; Nottingham, 7,710*l.*; Oxford, 13,719*l.*; Peterborough, 5,236*l.*; St. Asaph, 3,948*l.*; Salisbury, 5,386*l.*; Shrewsbury, 10,550*l.*; Taunton, 6,776*l.*; Wakefield, 46,792*l.*; Wells, 4,660*l.*; Winchester, 9,488*l.*; Worcester, 6,052*l.*; York, 25,228: total, 1,188,649*l.*

BANKRUPTCY.

A Return from the Accountant in Bankruptcy, showing the Revenue and Expenditure of the Court of Bankruptcy for the Year 1860. (Mr. Murray.) 14th March, 1861. (106.)

THE revenue and expenditure of the Court of Bankruptcy for the year 1860 was as follows:—The revenue consisted of percentage fees by official assignees, 29,160*l.* 7*s.* 1*d.*; stamp duties by commissioners of inland revenue, 16,939*l.* 8*s.* 4*d.*; interest on bankruptcy fund account, the chief registrar's account, and the unclaimed dividend account, 42,510*l.* 18*s.* 9*d.*; registrar of meetings, 1,300*l.*; brokerage (proportion of, for two years), 411*l.* 11*s.* 3*d.*: total, 90,322*l.* 5*s.* 5*d.* The charge was, salaries, viz.:—London commissioners, 10,000*l.*; London registrars, 6,000*l.*; London ushers, 784*l.* 8*s.* 10*d.*; the accountant and his clerks, &c., 7,015*l.* 11*s.* 1*d.*; the chief registrar, 1,200*l.*; clerks, &c., to ditto, Basinghall-street, 900*l.*; ditto, ditto, Quality-court, 400*l.*; the taxing master and his clerks, 1,700*l.*; country commissioners, 15,030*l.*; country registrars, 8,800*l.*; country ushers, 856*l.* 14*s.*: total, 52,686*l.* 13*s.* 11*d.* Compensations, viz.:—late London commissioners, 400*l.*; patentee of bankrupts, 7,352*l.* 14*s.* 6*d.*; lord chancellor's messenger, 200*l.*; late country commissioners, 8,674*l.* 10*s.* 11*d.*: total, 16,627*l.* 5*s.* 5*d.* Retiring annuities, 3,816*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.* Expenses, viz.:—London offices, &c., 497*l.* 1*s.* 11*d.*; country courts, 2,664*l.* 18*s.* 7*d.*; ditto, travelling expenses, 1,705*l.* 4*s.* 2*d.*: total, 4,867*l.* 4*s.* 8*d.* Bank remuneration (for year 1859), 2,291*l.* 9*s.* 4*d.* Fees returned, 706*l.* 1*s.* 1*d.* Costs of prosecution, 54*l.* 17*s.* 9*d.* Total, 81,050*l.* 5*s.* 6*d.*

CIVIL LIST PENSIONS.

Return of all Pensions granted and charged upon the Civil List in accordance with the Act 1 Vict. c. 2, with the grounds upon which such Pensions have been granted, distinguishing the Pensions which have lapsed, and allowing the Total Sum now payable on account of existing Pensions. (Mr. Stirling.)
4th June, 1861. (378.)

THE return commences with 1838, when four pensions were granted: two of 300*l.* each to Sydney Morgan and William Wallace, one to Sarah Mears of 40*l.*, and one of 50*l.* to six children of a constable, who lost his life in the execution of his duty in Ireland. In 1839 six pensions were granted: 200*l.* to the wife of Dr. M'Arthur, superintendent of model schools, Ireland, who was attacked by mental derangement, in consequence of his unbounded exertions for the national system of education; 200*l.* to Lieutenant-Colonel Gurwood; 100*l.* to the widow of William Plunkett, late deputy chairman of excise; 40*l.* to the daughter of John Banim, author of several works of imagination and poetry; 1000*l.* to Sir John Newport, who filled the office of Chancellor of the Exchequer in Ireland; and 25*l.* to the widow and children of William Aldridge, a meritorious police officer, who was murdered at Deptford, whilst in the execution of his duty.

In 1840, twelve pensions were granted: 75*l.* to the wife of John Lander, in consideration of the science, zeal, and courage displayed by her husband in a hazardous expedition in Africa, in which he died; 100*l.* to Dr. James Browne, of Edinburgh, for his literary attainments; 100*l.* to Rev. Henry Barez, teacher of German; 50*l.* to Signor Giuseppe Guazzaroni, teacher of Italian; 100*l.* to John Bernard Sale, teacher of music; 100*l.* to Thomas Steward, teacher of writing; 100*l.* to Monsieur François Grandineau, teacher of French; and 100*l.* to Miss Lucy Anderson, teacher of music, for having respectively taught the Queen; and 20*l.* each to three persons in Newport, for their services as special constables during the riots there. In 1841, thirteen pensions were granted: 100*l.* to Peter Warren Deare, for geographical discoveries on the Northern Coast of America; 100*l.* to two daughters of Sir Robert Kennedy, in consideration of his arduous services; 100*l.* to George Burges, for literary services in Greek literature; 50*l.* to Thomas Webster, for successful exertions in promoting the science of geology; 40*l.* to Benjamin Thorpe, for services in the Anglo-Saxon language; 300*l.* to Monsieur Harris, for his investigation of electrical phenomena; 200*l.* to Miss Sophia Wynyard, for services to the Royal Family; 200*l.* to the widow of Sir John Jeremie, for his service in the Colony of Sierra Leone; 150*l.* to Dr. John Anster, for the successful application of his talents in the cultivation of literature; 200*l.* to the Rev. Henry Francis Cary, for like services; 100*l.* to Mrs. Eliza Anne James, widow of the author of James's *Naval History of Great Britain*; and 100*l.* to the sister of Major J. Clapperton, the celebrated African traveller.

In 1842, five pensions were granted: 400*l.* to Louisa Baroness Lahzer, for eighteen years' services to her Majesty; 200*l.* to two sisters of Sir Robert Kennedy, as before; 300*l.* to William Wordsworth, for his literary attainments; 100*l.* to John Curtis, for his devotion to science; and 200*l.* to Richard Owen, for his exertions in the improvement of science. In 1843, four pensions: 100*l.* to the widow of Sir Charles Bell, for scientific services; 200*l.* to the sister of Edward Drummond, private secretary to Canning, and

other ministers; 200*l*. to Robert Brown, for services to the science of botany; and 500*l*. to Dame Florentia Sale, for military services of Colonel Sir Robert Henry Sale at Jellalabad. In 1844, one pension only, of 200*l*., to Sir William R. Hamilton, astronomer royal for Ireland. In 1845, there were granted fourteen pensions: 200*l*. to Patrick Frazer Tytler, for his merit as an historian; 100*l*. to the wife of Thomas Hood, author of popular works; 50*l*. each to four daughters of Lieutenant-Colonel Macdonald, grand-daughters of Principal Robertson, the historian; 25*l*. each to two sisters of Colonel Stoddart, murdered at Bokhara; 1000*l*. two pensions of 500*l*. each to Mademoiselle Augusta Emma D'Este, in consideration of her just claims on the Royal beneficence; 50*l*. to the daughter of Sir Hudson Lowe; 200*l*. to the wife of Sir Martin Archer Shee, artist; 200*l*. to Alfred Tennyson, poet; and 200*l*. to James David Forbes, professor of natural philosophy.

In 1846, fifteen pensions were granted: 100*l*. to the widow of John Claudius London, author of botanical works; 200*l*. to the daughters of Sir Martin A. Shee, artist; 50*l*. each to two sisters of Sir John M'Caskill, for military services; 50*l*. to the daughter of General Taylor; 200*l*. to Dr. Bloomfield, a divine; 100*l*. to Bernard Barton, for literary services; 200*l*. to Mr. J. R. M'Culloch; 50*l*. to the widow of Benjamin Robert Haydon, artist; 25*l*. each to Calvin Winstantley and John Lloyd, for services rendered by their ancestors to King Charles II., in his escape after the battle of Worcester; 100*l*. to Samuel Wilderspin, for promoting infant schools; 50*l*. to the widow of John Danim, author; 50*l*. to the widow of James Turnbull, author; 50*l*. to the widow of Colonel Gurwood. In 1847, eighteen pensions: two additional pensions of 50*l*. each to the brother and sister of Sir John M'Caskill; 300*l*. to the Rev. Theobald Matthew, for services in the cause of temperance; 200*l*. to Leigh Hunt, author; 50*l*. to the wife, and 25*l*. each to the six daughters of the Rev. Dr. Chalmers; 50*l*. each to two children of Thomas Hood; 25*l*. each to two daughters of Sir Archibald Christie; 100*l*. to George Newport, for discoveries in comparative anatomy and physiology; and 50*l*. each to two daughters of Professor Bell, professor of law, Edinburgh.

In 1848 six pensions: 50*l*. to the widow of General Maitland; 200*l*. to John Conde Adams, for astronomical discoveries; 200*l*. to James Sheridan Knowles, dramatic author; 200*l*. to William Carleton, author; 100*l*. to the three sisters of Professor McCullagh; and 500*l*. to the widow of Major Sir Henry Smith. In 1849 nine pensions: 40*l*. to the widow of James Kenny, author; 200*l*. to Thomas Waghorn, for his efforts in opening out the overland route to India; 50*l*. to William Sturgeon, for his services in electromagnetism; 100*l*. to George Petrie, for his services in archæological literature; and 20*l*. to the widow of Sergeant Grant. In 1850 eight pensions were granted: 100*l*. to the wife of Thomas Moore, poet; 50*l*. to the widow of Commissary-General Price; 40*l*. to the widow of Lieutenant Waghorn; 100*l*. to John Payne Collier, for literary merit; 100*l*. each to three ladies for their services to the late Queen Dowager; 100*l*. to the wife of Thomas Maclean, astronomer royal at the Cape of Good Hope; and 100*l*. to James Bailey, for literary merits.

In 1851 sixteen pensions: 100*l*. to Dr. Kitto, for services in Biblical literature; 100*l*. additional to George Petrie, for archæology; 60*l*. additional to Mrs. Waghorn; 100*l*. to John Poole, for literary merits; 100*l*. to the widow of Robert Liston, surgeon; 100*l*. to the widow of Belzoni, the

African traveller; 50*l.* to the widow of William Sturgeon, for services to science; 50*l.* to the daughter of Captain Edward M^cCarthy; 40*l.* to the mother of the late Captain C. Moylan; 100*l.* to Anna Jameson, for literary merits; 100*l.* to the widow of Frederick O. Long, Inspector-General of Prisons in Ireland; 200*l.* to James Silk Buckingham, for his literary works and travels; 200*l.* to Robert Torrens, F.R.S., for his contributions to the science of political economy; 300*l.* to Professor John Wilson, professor of moral philosophy in Edinburgh; 50*l.* to the wife and 50*l.* to the two daughters of Dr. Reid, professor of ecclesiastical and civil history, Glasgow.

In 1852 eleven pensions: 50*l.* to the wife of Dr. Alex. Mac Arthur, superintendent of model schools, Ireland; 75*l.* to John Britton, for literary merits; 75*l.* to the daughter of Colonel James Fitzgibbon; 200*l.* to John Russell Hind, for contribution to astronomical science; 100*l.* to Dr. Gideon Algernon Mantell, for his contributions to science; 200*l.* to the widow of Robert Southey, poet-laureate; 100*l.* to the widow of Colonel Taylor; 75*l.* to Francis Ronalds, for discoveries in electricity and meteorology; 75*l.* to Dr. Richardson, author of a new dictionary of the English language; 75*l.* to Louisa Stuart Costello, authoress; and 100*l.* to the wife of R. W. Pugin, architect. In 1853 nine pensions: 100*l.* to the widow of Major-General Colby, R.E.; 100*l.* to William Jerdan, for literary services; 75*l.* to the wife and daughter of Professor Dunbar, professor of Greek in the University of Edinburgh; 50*l.* to the widow of Dr. Glen, missionary to the East, translator of the Old Testament into Persian; 100*l.* to Sir Francis Bond Head, for literary contributions; 100*l.* to the widow of Mr. David Moir, surgeon and poet; 80*l.* to Rev. William Hickey, author of several works under the signature of "Martin Doyle;" 100*l.* to the widow of Mr. Oliver Lang, master shipwright at the Woolwich dockyard; 50*l.* to the widow and daughter of Mr. Joseph Train, for literary services; and 100*l.* to the widow of Sir Harris Nicholas, for literary services.

In 1854 twelve pensions: 80*l.* to the daughter of Dr. Macgillivray, for services to natural history; 50*l.* to the widow of Mr. James Hogg, the "Ettrick Shepherd," poet; 100*l.* to the sister and two daughters of Mr. James Simpson, for services in the cause of education; 40*l.* to the daughters of James Kenny, for literary services; 100*l.* to Alaric Alexander Watts, in consideration of his services to literature and to art; 100*l.* to five daughters of Joseph Tucker, surveyor of the navy; 100*l.* to Edward Hincks, Eastern scholar; 50*l.* to the widow of Mr. Bowditch, African traveller; 300*l.* to the widow of Mr. Montague, for surveying the penal settlement of Van Diemen's Land; 300*l.* to the three daughters of Mrs. Horatio Nelson Ward, the adopted daughter of Lord Nelson; 200*l.* to the widow of the Scotch judge, Lord Fullarton; and 100*l.* to the widow of Colonel Willoughby Moore. In 1855 five pensions: 100*l.* to Thomas Keightley, for services to historical literature; 150*l.* to the widow of Edwin Turner Craper, of the Treasury; 50*l.* to the widow of Dr. John Kitto; 50*l.* to Dr. Thomas Dick; and 25*l.* to Joseph Haydon, for useful additions to standard literature.

In 1856 twenty-three pensions were granted: 50*l.* to the daughter of Sir William Hoste, for naval services; 100*l.* to the widow of Lieutenant-Colonel Lloyd, for civil and diplomatic services; 100*l.* to Samuel Lover, for services to literature; 200*l.* to Francis Pellet Smith, for exertions for the introduction of the screw-propeller into her Majesty's services; 300*l.* to the three eldest daughters of General Sir George Cathcart; 50*l.* to John D'Alton,

for literary service; 50*l.* to the widow of Frederick Beckford Long, inspector of prisons; 50*l.* to the daughter of Mr. Baily, of the War Office; 50*l.* to Thomasine Ross, for literary merit; 25*l.* to the widow of Mr. Haydon; 50*l.* to John O'Donovan, for contributions to Irish History; 30*l.* to Alexander MacLagan, for literary merits; 50*l.* to the son of Henry Cort, inventor; 100*l.* to the widow of Mr. Gilbert & Beckett, police magistrate, London; 100*l.* to Philip James Bailey, for his literary merits; 25*l.* additional to Dr. Charles Richardson; 100*l.* to Dr. William Pulteney Alison, professor of physic, Edinburgh; 100*l.* to the widow of Mr. George Canning Buckhouse, who was murdered whilst discharging his duties as commissary-judge at the Havannah; 50*l.* to the widow of Dr. Gavin; 150*l.* to the widow of Captain Thompson, who died of wounds received at Kars; 50*l.* to the daughters of Mr. Hay, of the Admiralty; 50*l.* to the mother of the late Lieutenant Waghorn; and 50*l.* to Charles Swain, for literary merits.

In 1857, six pensions: 100*l.* to the daughter of General Sir George Cathcart; 100*l.* to Mrs. Mary Philadelphia Merrifield for literary merits; 70*l.* to the widow of Hugh Miller, for literary services; 25*l.* additional to the widow of Mr. Haydon; 30*l.* to the daughter of Hugh Miller, and 40*l.* to Edward Capern for literary merits. In 1858, twenty-nine pensions were granted: 50*l.* to the widow of Charles Rowcroft, late consul at Cincinnati; 50*l.* to the widow of Mr. Hillier, consul in China; 100*l.* to the widow of Douglas Jerrold, for literary services; 40*l.* to Dr. Robert Archibald Armstrong, for philological labour in Gaelic Lexicographer; 50*l.* each to two daughters of Mr. John Lander, who died whilst exploring the river Niger; 50*l.* to Stephen Henry Bradbury, for contributions to literature; 150*l.* to the daughters of Dr. Paris; 50*l.* to the widow of the Rev. Robert Montgomery, for theological and political literature; 200*l.* to the widow of General Sir Henry W. Barnard; 50*l.* to Francis Davis, for contribution to Irish literature; 40*l.* to the daughter of James Hogg, the "Ettrick Shepherd;" 50*l.* to the widow of Dr. Dick; 200*l.* to the widow of General George Anson, commander-in-chief of her Majesty's forces in India; 150*l.* to the mother of Lieutenant Willoughby, for the services of her son; 50*l.* to Mrs. Ann Skinner, for her having lost three sons in the service of their country; 75*l.* to Edwin Atherstone, for his literary merits; 75*l.* to the widow of William H. Bartlett, for literary services; 100*l.* to James Bowman Lindsay, for scientific attainment; 100*l.* to the widow of Dr. Ball, the naturalist; 100*l.* to the widow of John Nogan, sculptor; 50*l.* to the daughter of Mr. Archer, photographer; 75*l.* to Charles Duke Yonge, for literary services; 100*l.* to W. Desborough Cooley, for discoveries in Central Africa; 50*l.* to John Bolton Rogerson, for literary merits; to the granddaughters of Mr. T. Robertson, for services to nautical science; 100*l.* to Rev. John Hind, for literary services; 25*l.* additional to the daughters of Joseph Tucker, surveyor; and 75*l.* to the widow of Captain Simmons.

In 1859, only one pension was granted: 50*l.* additional to the daughters of Mr. Ward, of the War Office. In 1860, fourteen pensions: 125*l.* to the sisters of Dr. Dionysius Lardner, for scientific services; 100*l.* to the daughter of Hoppner, the painter; 100*l.* to Dr. Robert Blakey; 25*l.* additional to Edward Atherstone; 100*l.* to Miss Julia Pardoe, for literary services; 50*l.* to the widow of Captain Beecroft; 100*l.* to Dr. Robert Bigsby, for literary services; 100*l.* to the Rev. Henry Logan, for contributions to mathematical and scientific literature; 150*l.* to the widow of the Bishop of

Antigua; 50*l*. each to two daughters of Henry Cort, inventor; 50*l*. to Mrs. Janet Taylor, for benevolent labours among the seafaring population; 100*l*. to the daughter of Sir Samuel Bentham, who conferred services on naval science; and 50*l*. additional to the widow of Mr. Rowcroft. In 1861, eighteen pensions: 50*l*. to the daughter of Professor Bell, of Edinburgh; 25*l*. to John Burnet, line engraver and author; 50*l*. to the widow of Vice-Consul Barbar; 25*l*. additional to S. H. Bradbury; 100*l*. to the widow of Sir Jahleel Brenton, of her Majesty's navy; 50*l*. to John Curtis, of L —s, for scientific attainments; 75*l*. to David Costello, for literary services; 75*l*. to John Donaldson, for services in scientific agriculture; 100*l*. to the daughters of Mr. Fourdrinier, for his invention in the manufacture of paper; 25*l*. additional to Mrs. Haydon; 75*l*. to the daughter of Leigh Hunt; 50*l*. to the widow of Professor Henfrey; 50*l*. to the daughter of Douglas Jerrold; 50*l*. to Mrs. Anne Macrae, for her services in the work of education; 100*l*. to the sisters of Mrs. Jameson, 100*l*. to the daughter of R. Southey; 50*l*. to Miss Julia Tilt, for literary merits; and 70*l*. to Rev. William Barnes, linguist and author.

The total amount of these sums was—England, 15,570*l*.; Scotland, 1,600*l*.; Ireland, 1,615*l*.: Total, 18,785*l*.

GUARANTEE OF MONEY IN COMPANIES.

Report of the Select Committee of the House of Lords appointed to inquire into the manner in which Companies shall be authorized to subscribe or guarantee any Money to be employed in the undertaking of any other Company.

THE committee consisted of Earl Lucan, Earl Lonsdale, Lord Wycombe, Lord Redesdale, Lord Colchester, Lord Portman, Lord Overstone, and Lord Churston. It was appointed on the 12th July, 1861, and on the 19th it reported as follows:—

The committee are of opinion that the following section should be added to standing order 185 (formerly 223):—"That when in any bill a provision is inserted, authorizing any company to subscribe towards or to guarantee or to raise any money in aid of the undertaking of another company, which bill is not brought in by the company so authorized, or of which such company is not a joint promoter, proof shall be required before the examiner that the company so authorized has consented to such subscription, guarantee, or raising of money, at a meeting of the proprietors of such company, held specially for that purpose, in the same manner and subject to the same provisions, as the meeting directed to be held under the first section of this order, and that such provision was approved of by the proprietors of the ordinary shares of the company, present in person or by proxy, holding at least three-fourths of the paid-up capital of the company represented at such meeting, such proprietors being qualified to vote at the meeting in right of such capital only; and that such approval, and the sum agreed to be subscribed, appeared in the notices by advertisement required by the standing orders.

"In any case in which such consent has been given, it shall not be necessary to submit the bill to the approval of a meeting, to be held in accordance with the first section of this order."

[185]

The committee are further of opinion that the second section of standing order No. 190 (formerly 228) should be amended by the insertion of the words "and third" after the word "first," and also by the insertion of the following paragraph at the end of the said section :—"If any company authorised to subscribe to the undertaking of another company shall petition the House for leave to be heard against any alteration of the bill made in the House of Commons, materially affecting the conditions under which their subscription was agreed to, such petition shall be referred to the standing order committee, and the said committee shall report whether it is reasonable, and to what extent they should be heard; and if the committee report that it is so reasonable, leave may be given accordingly."

AGRICULTURAL STATISTICS (IRELAND).

The Estimated Average Produce of the Crops; and the Emigration from Ireland in the Year 1860.

ON comparing the yield, it appears that in 1860 wheat produced a less quantity per acre ($4\frac{1}{2}$ barrels of 21 stones) than in any year since 1849, with the exception of 1850, when the estimated acreable yield was only $4\frac{1}{2}$ barrels. Oats and barley gave a better yield than in 1859, and with a less acreage, produced a greater quantity of grain. Bere and rye decreased in yield, and beans and peas increased. As regards the potato crop, the produce was considerably under that given for any of the previous twelve years. Turnips, mangel, and cabbage also decreased in yield; but flax and hay show a favourable increase over the previous year.

There was much variation reported in the crops as grown in different localities. Thus, in the midland districts, turnips were stated to be generally inferior, although some crops were good, and yielded about thirty tons to the statute acre. Potatoes also were very variable, the late sown and not well manured being very inferior; the disease was said to be general, and the quality of the tubers of those that were sound was not equal to former years. Hay was a heavy crop, although many of the low-lying meadows suffered from floods. Early oats were good and productive; but late crops, in many instances, suffered, and were not maturely ripened; their yield was, consequently, very light. In some of the northern districts oats, both as regards grain and straw, were stated to have been little inferior to former years. Hay was said to be about the same; potatoes yielded about half compared with the crop of 1859; and turnips and cabbages afforded but very small crops.

The following is the estimated produce of the principal crops grown in 1860:—Wheat, 1,271,588 qrs.; oats, 8,841,924; barley, 750,245; bere, 14,113; rye, 27,896; potatoes, 2,741,380 tons; turnips, 2,627,978; mangel-wurzel, 290,241; cabbage, 188,711; flax, 23,760; hay, 3,206,402.

As compared with 1859, there was an increase in 1860 of 727,413 qrs. in the produce of oats, barley, and rye, and a decrease of 200,885 quarters in wheat and bere, leaving a net increase of 526,528 quarters in the yield of cereal crops. Wheat, notwithstanding a greater extent having been sown than in 1859, shows a diminished produce; potatoes show a decrease of 1,588,143 tons; turnips, 834,093 tons; mangel-wurzel, 17,705 tons; and cabbage, 141,286 tons; making a total decrease in the produce of

[186]

potatoes and green crops of 2,581,227 tons. The yield of flax was more by 2,183 tons, owing to a considerable increase in the produce, the breadth sown being less by 7,687 acres than in 1859. Hay also shows a large increase—884,623 tons, there being 157,407 acres more of meadow-lands in 1860, and an increased yield of 8 cwt. per statute acre; being the largest total produce of any year since 1847.

The acreage under tillage is shown as follows:—Wheat, 466,415 acres; oats, 1,966,304; barley, 181,099; bere and rye, 12,734; potatoes, 1,172,079; turnips, 318,540; mangel-wurzel, 31,986; cabbage, 22,785; flax, 128,595; hay, 1,594,518.

The fluctuations in the yield per acre of these crops in 1860 were—Wheat, in barrels of 20 stones, 4·6; oats, in barrels of 14 stones, 7·2; barley, in barrels of 16 stones, 7·5; bere, in barrels of 15 stones, 7·1; rye, in barrels of 20 stones, 4·7; potatoes, in barrels of 20 stones, 18·7; turnips, in tons, 8·3; mangel-wurzel, in tons, 9·1; cabbage, in tons, 8·3; flax, in stones of 14 lbs., 29·6; hay, in tons, 2·0.

The number of emigrants who left Ireland in 1860 was 84,621—42,658 males and 41,963 females, being an increase of 4,022 persons compared with those who left during the previous year—the number in 1859 being 80,599. Exclusive of these emigrants, 3,005 persons, who were residents of other countries, sailed from Irish ports during the same period.

INCOME AND PROPERTY TAX.

Return showing the net Amount of Property and Income Tax for the Year ending the 5th day of April, 1859, classed under the Schedules, &c. (Mr. Charles Forster.) 31st July, 1860. (501.)

CLASSES.	GREAT BRITAIN.			IRELAND.		
	Amount of Income charged with Tax.	Number of Persons in each Class.	Amount of Tax charged upon each Class.	Amount of Income charged with Tax.	Number of Persons in each Class.	Amount of Tax charged upon each Class.
	£		£	£		£
Under £100 a year ...	2,225,649	41,928	46,367	164,480	2,967	3,427
£100 and under £150	11,126,100	100,968	231,794	714,631	6,438	14,889
150 " 200	6,478,655	41,276	134,972	387,389	2,493	8,069
200 " 300	7,877,513	35,553	164,115	547,771	2,436	11,412
300 " 400	5,062,145	15,867	105,461	347,335	1,086	7,236
400 " 500	3,283,706	7,829	68,410	237,268	542	4,942
500 " 600	2,939,375	5,720	61,237	213,216	411	4,442
600 " 700	2,040,547	3,313	42,511	167,321	256	3,486
700 " 800	1,594,083	2,198	33,209	118,943	163	2,479
800 " 900	1,505,958	1,835	31,375	106,412	129	2,216
900 " 1,000	826,432	889	17,217	48,147	52	1,002
1,000 " 2,000	7,140,311	5,556	148,757	427,123	329	8,899
2,000 " 3,000	3,677,570	1,599	76,616	215,017	92	4,479
3,000 " 4,000	2,584,150	781	53,837	141,505	43	2,947
4,000 " 5,000	2,204,247	502	45,922	47,024	11	980
5,000 " 10,000	5,421,796	816	112,955	189,874	27	3,956
10,000 " 50,000	9,266,873	489	193,059	393,440	23	8,197
50,000 and upwards ...	4,969,359	54	103,529	120,661	1	2,514
Total ...	80,224,419	267,173	1,671,343	4,587,457	17,499	95,572

CLASSES.	GREAT BRITAIN.			IRELAND.		
	Amount of Income charged with Tax.	Number of Persons in each Class.	Amount of Tax charged upon each Class.	Amount of Income charged with Tax.	Number of Persons in each Class.	Amount of Tax charged upon each Class.
	£		£	£		£
Under £100 a year ...	1,595,611	29,891	33,242	92,998	1,761	1,937
£100 and under £150	3,296,950	29,219	68,686	175,944	1,509	3,665
150 " 200	2,058,769	11,986	42,892	100,662	619	2,098
200 " 300	2,780,905	11,443	57,935	169,796	699	3,538
300 " 400	1,750,201	5,124	36,462	106,603	321	2,221
400 " 500	1,065,968	2,381	22,308	64,700	154	1,348
500 " 600	795,760	1,472	16,577	50,322	95	1,048
600 " 700	464,838	729	9,685	28,882	47	602
700 " 800	418,416	567	8,717	27,043	36	563
800 " 900	332,399	396	6,925	30,228	37	630
900 " 1,000	232,877	231	4,852	23,523	25	490
1,000 " 2,000	1,604,229	1,307	33,421	83,600	70	1,741
2,000 " 3,000	391,568	157	8,157	38,640	16	805
3,000 " 4,000	230,103	64	4,795	46,656	13	972
4,000 " 5,000	152,064	27	3,168	22,464	5	468
5,000 and upwards ...	549,572	70	11,449	33,072	3	689
Total ...	17,720,229	95,063	369,171	1,095,133	5,410	22,815

The net amount of property and income tax was as follows:—The assessment by commissioners for general purposes amounted in Great Britain, as follows:—Schedule A, 2,395,554*l.*; Schedule B, 302,729*l.*; Schedule C, 512,190*l.*; Schedule D, 1,673,825*l.*; Schedule E, 369,171*l.*: total, 5,323,469*l.* Ireland—Schedule A, 267,243*l.*; Schedule B, 20,076*l.*; Schedule C, 29,204*l.*; Schedule D, 96,098*l.*; Schedule E, 22,815*l.*: total, 435,436*l.*

SALMON FISHERIES.

Report of the Commissioners appointed to inquire into the Salmon Fisheries of England and Wales, with a view of increasing the Supply of a valuable Article of Food for the benefit of the Public.

THE commissioners, Sir William Jardine, Bart., William Joshua Flen-
nell, Esq., and George Kettelby, Esq., examined a large number of witnesses,
and on the 7th of February, 1861, reported as follows:—

The commissioners having visited in succession the principal rivers, gave the following description of them, and of the modes of fishing. Several large and important salmon rivers discharge themselves through their estuaries into the Bristol Channel. Intermediate among these are rivers of lesser size, which salmon also ascend, while many still smaller streams flow from the valleys, up which at a later period of the year the migratory fish also run, but do not continue longer than to deposit their spawn. These latter, though not unimportant, can only be looked upon as breeding-grounds. The great mass of salmon that are bred in those various streams enter the Channel in common, and although many of them may seek and find the rivers of their birth, those which are bred in the smaller streams mingle with the others, and swell the spring and summer produce of the

[188]

larger rivers. The Severn, the Wye, Usk, Avon, and intermediate smaller streams, representing a drainage or water-shed basin of no less than 8,580 square miles, discharge into the Bristol Channel between the Taff on the Welsh side, and the Axe on the Somersetshire coast.

The Severn.—The tide in the Severn, which rises to a great height, extends up the river nearly as far as the city of Worcester. Higher up, its course is marked by deep pools, with good fords and spawning-ground in the upper waters. There are also several tributaries of average quality. These circumstances give the Severn every requisite for a first-rate salmon river. All the river above Gloucester is easily fished with the ordinary draft net, or seine, and several stations on the estuary (where it is now sometimes used) are well adapted for this mode of fishing; while the upper parts and tributaries are capable of affording good angling. The estuary is at present fished with fixed engines, known there as “putts,” and “putchers,” or “trumpets,” of which a further account will be given hereafter.

Wye, Usk, &c.—The Wye, Usk, and rivers running into the northern side of the Bristol Channel, are somewhat peculiar both in their natural character, and as to the engines employed in them. The Wye, a large and noble stream, possesses great capabilities for salmon fishing. Here, as in the Severn, the tide rises very high, and extends for a long distance upwards, but the tidal portion scarcely anywhere assumes the character of an estuary; it is narrow, and is filled when the tide rises with a deep, muddy stream, which leaves steep sludgy banks at low water, unfit, or at least, inconvenient, for fishing with the draft net, or seine. The muddy water here renders nets of different kinds, held by hand or temporarily fixed during a part of the ebb or flow of the tide, efficient, and it is by means of coracles and stop-nets (the latter called “stopping”) that the salmon fishery in the lower parts is almost entirely carried on. On the Usk putt-nets are also largely used. Coracles are employed in the pools, especially for night fishing, some distance up these rivers.

Teifi River.—The Teifi, a fine and large stream, requires mention as being the head-quarters of the coracle fishing. The estuary is not extensive, but the main course has numerous rapids, pools, and good spawning-grounds, and is fed by several tributaries. The mouth, or entrance, is fished by fixed and draft nets, the river principally by coracles. Here, indeed, this system of fishing is developed to the utmost, and is pursued far up the stream, wherever a pool is to be found. The feelings of the coracle-fishers are strongly antagonistic both to the fishermen at the mouth and to the upper proprietors. They form a numerous class, bound together by a strong *esprit de corps*, and from long and undisturbed enjoyment of their peculiar mode of fishing, have come to look upon the river almost as their own, and to regard with extreme jealousy any sign of interference with what they consider their rights. In the deep and narrow water near the Killgeran slate quarries, several pairs of coracles are sometimes so arranged, as almost entirely to close the passage against the fish. The other rivers in South Wales have no very marked features of natural character, and resemble most of those rising in a mountainous country, with this difference, that none of them flow from a lake of any magnitude. They are of average quality, according to their size and length of course, and most of them discharge into estuaries, well adapted for using the draft net. The same remarks apply to the rivers in North Wales, except that the Dee flows out of Bala Lake.

The Conway has a fine tidal estuary above the town of that name, well suited for the draft net, but the river course, though of a favourable character so far as it extends, is very short, being cut off from the upper parts by inaccessible falls.

The rivers falling into the sea between the Dee and the Lune at Lancaster are large and fine streams, and formerly possessed salmon in good quantity, but the great extension of manufactures, and the destruction caused by weirs in that important district have much interfered with the fisheries. The Lune at the northern extremity of this series rises in a hilly country, and affords abundance of spawning ground; it receives a considerable body of water from tributaries in its course, and has a large estuary with scarcely any impediments. Salmon once abounded in this river and are still taken in some quantity, but the entrance is barred by an enormous weir and fishing traps.

The Lake District.—The parts of Cumberland and Westmoreland commonly known as the "Lake district" give rise to many valuable rivers, differing in their character from any we have yet noticed. The centre of this district is high and mountainous land, reaching an elevation of above 3,000 feet, and the valleys contain lakes of considerable extent and depth. From these the main rivers flow by comparatively short courses, and are all emptied into that part of the Irish Sea which extends northward to the Solway, and southward to Morecambe Bay. This forms a well defined river area of large extent, in which may be included that of the Eden, which receives a considerable tributary from Ulswater. The Leven and Derwent may be taken as examples of this class of rivers. Both are very fine streams, particularly the latter, and they flow out of the larger lakes. The presence of a lake in the course or near the source is always an advantageous circumstance to a salmon river, as it gives a safe resting place to the fish that run up early, until they are ready to seek their spawning grounds, and it enables the old fish to take advantage of the first floods in the river to pass down to the sea. A considerable number of salmon still ascend these rivers, and a few simple arrangements would soon increase their numbers. Great natural advantages are here neglected and abused.

Char.—The lakes in this district are the only localities in England where char are taken and form an article of sale and profit in the fisheries. But this delicate fish is also decreasing in numbers, and the cause is obvious. They are fished for and taken only late in the season, and during their spawning time. The excuse for this is that they then only come to the shallow parts of the lake, and cannot be taken at other times from the depth of water they frequent. This, however, is not really the case. In October they are taken at a depth of forty yards or more, and the best fish are got then. The fact is, that in summer, when they are in full season, it is more profitable for the boatmen to attend upon tourists and anglers, and the difficulty of deep-water fishing is made the excuse for taking them after the spawning season has begun. This fish is in great demand at all the hotels near the lakes; but if some check be not put upon their destruction at improper seasons, they are likely to disappear altogether.

The rivers on the eastern coast of England between the Tweed and the Humber do not require particular notice. They are of the ordinary character, and possess great capabilities for producing salmon, which formerly abounded in them.

Humber.—The estuary of the Humber from thirty to forty miles in
[190]

length, and averaging a breadth of from three to four miles, drains the largest basin in all England. On the one side the Ouse and its large tributaries, and on the other the Trent, flow conjointly from an area of 9,550 square miles. The estuary is nearly unobstructed by fixed engines, and a very large body of fresh water is at all seasons poured into it from the two main feeders already mentioned. But these rivers for a considerable way inland are deficient in the requisites for salmon, being sluggish in their course, and the Trent in many parts during summer is much choked up with weeds. The upper parts, however, of nearly all the tributaries into which these rivers branch out, are rapid, and afford a large extent of excellent spawning ground. In these salmon were formerly plentiful. Some of the Yorkshire rivers have suffered greatly from the effect of manufactures, and the salmon are nearly gone; but a few still find their way to the upper waters. The condition of the Trent is rather better, notwithstanding the sluggish and weedy character of the lower parts. In spite of the disadvantages which now attach to them, these large rivers with their unobstructed estuary are well worthy of attention, and if a free passage were opened through them, the fisheries would be of great value.

Viewing, then, the rivers in England and Wales as a whole, and setting aside those waters which have been poisoned by mines, or greatly contaminated by the pollutions arising from manufactures, there remains still a vast area possessing great natural advantages for the production of salmon. The rivers of England and Wales exceed in extent those of either Scotland or Ireland, which supply great quantities of salmon, and yield a large revenue. They embrace a full average proportion of water well suited for the breeding of fish, with rapid streams, and deep pools, and the upper parts contain good gravelly spawning beds. They thus possess every requisite for increasing the supply of a valuable commodity, were not the bounty of nature frustrated by the perverseness or negligence of man.

The commissioners then entered into the alleged falling off in the produce of the salmon fisheries.

The decrease of fish is in most cases stated to have been very great; in some rivers the present supply is described as not being more than 1 in 10, 1 in 20, or even 1 in 100 compared with what the witnesses personally recollect. There might be some ground to suspect exaggeration in these statements, although they were almost universal, were they not supported by other evidence of a very cogent nature. It was proved, for example:— 1. That the price of the fish had greatly increased. 2. That the rents paid for fisheries had much diminished. 3. That the numbers of persons and boats employed in the fisheries had fallen off. Lastly, it was shown by the evidence of authentic records and documents that the number and weight of fish actually taken in former times were much greater than at present.

The fact of decrease being conclusively established, the commissioners proceeded to specify the causes to which this result is to be attributed. Those causes are principally the following:—

1. Obstructions to the free passage of the fish.
2. The use of fixed engines.
3. Defective regulation of fence times or close seasons.
4. Illegal fishing; destruction of unseasonable fish; spawning fish; spent fish; young, or fry.
5. The want of an organized system of management of the rivers and fisheries, affording the means of efficient protection against poaching and other destructive and illegal practices.
6. Poisoning of waters by the efflux from mines.
7. Pollution of waters by manufactures, gasworks, and

[191]

other nuisances. 8. Confusion and uncertainty of the law, and difficulty of enforcing its penalties against offenders.

The commissioners proceeded to consider the causes thus enumerated seriatim, and then made the following recommendations:—

It is satisfactory to observe that in regard to the principal recommendations which it will be our duty to make, we have experience to appeal to. Several of the measures that we are about to propose have been adopted by the legislature, and with very successful results. In Ireland, by the operation of a series of Acts, commencing with the 5 and 6 Vict. cap. 106, the salmon fisheries have exhibited a gradual and steady improvement. In Scotland legislation based upon similar principles has taken place in regard to some of the principal rivers; and though these measures have been too recent to exhibit as yet any striking effect, we believe that the results hitherto experienced are encouraging. Lastly, we may appeal, as an authority of much weight, to the report made by the select committee of the House of Lords in the last session of Parliament upon the salmon fisheries of Scotland, which embodies conclusions as to the remedies required very nearly similar to those which we have adopted upon independent grounds from the evidence laid before us. The result of the Irish experiment is particularly encouraging, although it must be admitted that the Acts are in many points defective, and do not carry out sound principles so far as might be desired. The powers of superintendence and control lodged in the commissioners form a very important element in the Irish fishery code. In fact, the discretion with which they are invested of declaring boundaries, of enacting byelaws, of removing obstructions, and of modifying the strict provisions of the law with respect to close times and other matters, may be regarded as the keystone of the system.

It is by such means that the difficulties arising from applying an uniform law to the diverse circumstances of the various rivers and districts, as well as those incidental to the introduction and working of a new system, are enabled to be overcome. The power of making byelaws obviates the necessity of repeated applications to Parliament to amend the Acts. Moreover, the evidence we have received has brought strongly before our minds the necessity of some impartial and independent power to control and mediate between the various and often hostile interests connected with the fisheries. Assuming, as we shall at present, that each river should be treated as a whole and be under unity of management, it would be found extremely difficult, at all events at the outset, to constitute any local governing body fairly representing the whole, that would not contain highly antagonistic elements and become the scene of great dissensions. The long standing jealousies between upper and lower proprietors, and between the riparian owners and those who exercise the public right of fishing, would make the local board an arena for disputes, which, without some impartial authority to appeal to, would either produce confusion, or the even worse result of a numerical majority overriding the minority. The important question of close time, for instance, is one which, until enlightened views prevail, would be a source of endless contention between the rival interests. We may refer, as an illustration of these statements, to the strong manifestation of feeling on the part of the tideway fishermen on the river Teifi at our inquiry at Newcastle-Emlyn. But, indeed, the idea that one class is profited by that which injures another, and that each man's greatest gain consists in appropriating to himself by any means, and in whatever con-

dition they may be, the largest possible number of fish, is so general, that until a better knowledge of the nature and habits of the salmon, and of the true community of interest that subsists in a fishery can be diffused, there would be little prospect of advantage from the management of an uncontrolled local board. We may add that the opinion of the most intelligent and well-informed witnesses, in all parts of the country, was expressed with remarkable unanimity in favour of some central authority.

It is to be observed that the Lords' Committee on Scotch Fisheries have made it the first recommendation in their report:—"1. That a central board or commission be appointed to regulate salmon fishings in Scotland." In Canada also the salmon fisheries have recently been placed under the superintendence of a Government department.

We are well aware that objections will be raised *in limine* against the proposal to constitute a new body of commissioners. In the first place, such a measure will naturally be viewed with jealousy as imposing a fresh charge on the public purse. It is true, indeed, that if the measures about to be recommended should have the effect we confidently anticipate, of producing, in the words of our commission, "an increased supply of a valuable article of food for the benefit of the public," the force of this objection would be much diminished. It may, however, be alleged that the advantage gained by an increased supply of salmon, though extending to a large part of the community, would not come back in a tangible pecuniary shape to the Treasury. To make the public revenue participate directly in the increase of this commodity may, indeed, be somewhat difficult, at the same time it cannot be doubted that the indirect effect of an addition to any branch of the national wealth must be to augment the revenue. Regarding the salmon fisheries as an article of national property, hitherto deplorably neglected, but capable of restoration, and pregnant with great value, we are persuaded that a moderate annual cost incurred for their reclamation would be amply compensated to the State.

We will not take upon ourselves to suggest in what manner the arrangements necessary for providing the requisite control and supervision may be made with the greatest convenience and least burden to the Government, whether by creating a separate board, or by annexing the powers required to some existing department. We confine ourselves to stating, as in justice to our own strong convictions we are bound to do, the urgent necessity of some central authority to assist, as well as to control, the local administrators of the fisheries, and to give elasticity to the working of a new and complicated machinery. Among the essential functions of such a body would be that of defining the mouths of the rivers and other boundaries, a thing which it would be impossible to do at the outset for the whole kingdom by a series of clauses in an Act of Parliament, but which must be done in each case upon careful inquiry and accurate local knowledge. The formation of separate fishery districts for management by local boards, and the subsequent revision, if needful, of such arrangements, is another matter requiring the discretion of a central authority. Again, the power of making byelaws, so as to accommodate the fixed provisions of the statute to the many diversities of occasions and circumstances that must exist in so large an area, would be of the utmost service; indeed, without such a power the working of a general Act would be found extremely difficult, if not impossible. And without further specifying the occasions which would demand the intervention of the proposed commissioners, it may be stated generally

that for the purpose of advising and assisting the local boards, of forming an appellate or arbitrating jurisdiction in case of dispute or conflict, of procuring uniformity in the administration of the law, as well as of aiding the legislature in its amendment where necessary, the services of such a body would be found of the greatest utility. We feel bound to record in an emphatic manner our conviction that the attempt to start a new system in reliance upon local administration, unaided and uncontrolled, would be attended with total failure, producing only a recurrence of those abuses which have worked such disastrous effects upon the fisheries.

The scheme of local management which we would recommend is that which has been approved by experience in Ireland, and is founded on recognized constitutional principles. It is that of a board of conservators to be elected by and to represent the various interests along the whole course of the river or rivers placed under the management of the board, including both the proprietors of land on the banks, the owners of several fisheries, and the fishermen who exercise their vocation in the tidal or navigable waters. All these parties would be called upon to contribute, as will be explained presently, to the expense of protection, and all should accordingly be represented at the board by such persons as they may elect for the purpose. The scheme would be in its general features similar to that laid down for Ireland by the 11 & 12 Vict. c. 92. The districts which would be formed for local management by the central board, as they are in Ireland by the commissioners, would include a certain space along the sea coast, comprising one or more rivers having their outfall within those limits. In the formation of such districts much judgment will be required, so as to prevent an undue preponderance of any separate interest, and insure a fair and equal representation at the board; and in this instance, as in many others, the utility of an independent central authority will be apparent. In the local boards should be vested all powers necessary for the practical management and protection of the respective fisheries. Subject, in certain cases, to the control of the central board, they should raise and administer the funds authorized to be levied, should appoint and overlook the watchers and other officers, and generally carry the enactments of the law into execution.

The question how to raise the necessary funds for the management and maintenance of the fisheries in such manner as has been now proposed, is one of considerable difficulty, and has engaged our anxious attention. As to the principle to be adopted, there is little doubt; those who benefit by protection should pay for protection. Nor do we feel any doubt as to the justice and expediency of the system of taxation which has been adopted for Ireland, under the 11 & 12 Vict. c. 92, and of which a large number of the witnesses whom we examined expressed their approval. Under that Act the funds required for each district are raised by a two-fold method, viz., 1st, by a rate upon the occupiers of the several fisheries; and 2nd, by a licence duty upon all engines used in the capture of salmon, including nets of all kinds, fishing weirs, rods, &c. By these means, all parties who use or derive benefit from a fishery are made to contribute, according to a regular scale, and subject to a maximum fixed by statute, to the expense of protection.

In Ireland a considerable and yearly increasing income is raised from these sources, and is applied exclusively for the benefit of the fisheries—a system which is commended by its obvious justice, and which gives com-

plete satisfaction to the public. But the difficulty in applying it to England arises from that very depression of the fisheries which makes it necessary to take effective measures, and to incur consequent expense, for their restoration. The depreciation in the value of fishing rights, the decline of rents, and the reduced numbers and condition of the fishermen, to which we have already adverted, would probably render the revenue derived from such sources, for the present at least, less productive than would be required. We entertain no doubt that if the proper measures be adopted, and the fisheries placed at once in the train of improvement, the effect in a few years will be to create an increased value, which will afford an ample basis for taxation. But they are now at a very low ebb, and the difficulty occurs in taking the first steps for their recovery.

It will be understood from the statement already made as to the obstructions which at present block up the rivers, and prevent the propagation of the fish, that some expenditure of an extraordinary kind, beyond the regular and ordinary charges of watching and protection, would be necessary at the outset, in order to give an opening for improvement to the fisheries. Thus, at the commencement of a new system, the necessity for an immediate outlay concurs with a very low state of taxable value.

We have earnestly considered what means can be devised for overcoming this difficulty. Two modes of supplying the deficiency have presented themselves to our minds, viz.:—1. State assistance. 2. Voluntary contributions.

1. We shall dismiss in a few words the former proposition. When a grant from the State was suggested by certain parties in the course of our inquiry, we at once informed them that such a demand was likely to receive little favour from the Government. It is our own opinion, that the charges of protecting and increasing the produce of the rivers ought to be defrayed from local sources, and that a property so valuable in itself, and so highly favoured by nature as the English salmon fisheries, if only they were fairly managed, ought to be self-supporting. In recommending, as we have done, that some charge for State supervision should be incurred, we have gone as far as we think reasonable in this direction.

2. The resource of voluntary contribution is one which, even in the present discouraging state of the fisheries, has been liberally afforded, and under a better system, it seems reasonable to expect, might be not only continued, but increased.

The large number of fishing associations and clubs, which have been formed for the protection of all the more important rivers, has been already adverted to. The aggregate of the funds annually raised in the shape of subscription by those bodies must amount to a considerable sum. This fact affords proof of the willingness of the resident proprietors and other parties, even under very discouraging circumstances, to give their money for the benefit of the fisheries. It is fair to assume that if the prospect of improvement were made clear and palpable, and the profitable return for the outlay visibly demonstrated, contributions would be still more liberally made. We do not found this opinion on mere conjecture. In several instances, in the course of our inquiry, where some serious obstruction or injury to a fishery was brought under our notice, which it only required a certain outlay or compensation to get rid of, we were assured that if the existence of the nuisance in question were the only obstacle to the improvement of the river, the money needed for its removal would be immediately forthcoming. But

[195]

under the present system, the effect of removing one cause of mischief would often be only to give increased activity to another. Where there is no co-operation, improvement by individuals becomes a fruitless self-sacrifice. Liberal offers have, however, to our knowledge been made by persons holding proprietary rights, both to incur expense and to forego privileges, which might be injurious to the general interest in the rivers; and we feel much confidence, that if the law were put on a sound footing, and a course entered upon which manifestly tended to the recovery of the fisheries, many noblemen and gentlemen would lend their efforts towards that object with a liberality and public spirit, of which they have already given an earnest by their conduct.

Under the existing circumstances of the case, as now set forth, the following appear to us to be the financial arrangements which it would be expedient to adopt.

To defray the ordinary expenses of watching and protecting the fisheries by means of a fund to be raised, 1st, by a rate on private fisheries; 2nd, by a licence duty on engines of all kinds, the maximum both of rate and duty to be fixed by Act of Parliament, but subject to a modifying power from time to time by the central board.

It will be necessary that a valuation of the private fisheries should be made, and be renewed from time to time, as occasion may require. The valuation should be made under the authority of the central board.

From these two sources we anticipate a return, small at first, but progressively increasing, the whole of which should be applied exclusively to the maintenance of the fisheries.

So long as the fund is small, the ordinary expenditure to be defrayed by it must be limited in proportion. The force of watchers and other paid officers to be employed must be somewhat stinted. The means for restraining poaching and other offences, unless voluntary aid be contributed, will be smaller than for the general good of the rivers would be desirable. This, though inevitable for a time, would no doubt be an evil. But if the views advanced by us in the earlier part of this report are correct, even poaching and illegal fishing are but secondary causes of mischief to the rivers, and are certainly not those which have actually brought them to the verge of ruin. The obstruction to the free passage of the fish is, as before stated, far more fatal to the species than any of the arts illegally employed for their destruction. Granting even that poaching should still go on to some extent with impunity, from the lack of adequate means to repress it, still, let the rivers be once unimpeded by weirs and dams, and a free run be given to the fish from the sea to their spawning beds, let the close season also be properly regulated by law, and, such is the fecundity of the salmon tribe, that, as we confidently believe, by these measures alone, a great step would at once be taken towards the regeneration of the fisheries.

If, therefore, it should happen that, during the infancy of the new system, the funds raised for protection should fall short of the amount which it would be desirable to expend, the worst result that could happen would be this, that, for such period, economy must stint the full measure of the benefit which might otherwise be conferred. But if, in the meantime, the advantages, incomparably more important than all others, of a free river and an undisturbed breeding season can be obtained, the causes which, in the present state of things, would make the funds derivable from taxation small, would be in a course of gradual diminution. How then can those

advantages be attained? In the first place, we think, by direct legislation; by the proper regulation of close seasons, as we shall presently explain, and the abolition by law of certain impediments, and of certain engines and modes of destroying the fish, which now operate most injuriously. In the second place, through the voluntary efforts and liberality of individuals interested in the fisheries, which, we believe, it is not presumptuous to reckon upon.

In carrying out the great object of a free passage for the fish it would be necessary, according to our views, that some expense should be incurred. However anxious we may be to abate nuisances, we are not prepared to recommend those extreme measures in dealing with individuals which, according to a rigorous deduction from legal principles, might be thought justifiable. We shall presently explain in what class of cases we propose that local boards should bear the cost of overcoming obstructions. To meet this cost, which their ordinary funds may be inadequate to defray, some assistance will be needed. We propose that a power should be given them of borrowing money for this purpose on the credit of the rates and licence-duties. In the case of a salmon fishery, the advantage of a very moderate outlay, expended in opening a passage to the fish, hitherto barred out from access to their breeding grounds, would be so manifest, and the prospect of remuneration so immediate, that money advanced by persons interested in the result could scarcely be regarded as an unprofitable investment. We rely on facts within our own knowledge, and on assurances we have ourselves received, when we express our belief that, provided only that the law will second the efforts of individuals, and that security be afforded that the improvement made in one part of a river will not be neutralized by abuses in another, the money required for getting rid of some of the worst obstructions and nuisances that now exist, will be speedily forthcoming.

By the two methods, therefore, which have been specified, viz., by an annual revenue derived from rates and licence-duties, and by a supplementary fund raised by donations and loans, we believe that the expenditure necessary to restore the fisheries to a productive condition, and to maintain them when so restored, may be defrayed. In the event of such restoration taking place, financial difficulties will no longer exist; the occasion for extraordinary outlay will for the most part cease, and the income derived from taxation will become permanently adequate.

Another measure which we are prepared to recommend, would tend in some degree to reduce the charge of protection devolving upon the ordinary income of the board. We refer to the employment, to some extent, in aid of the execution of the fishery laws both of the county and borough constabulary force, and also, where it is available, of the officers and men of the coastguard service. Both of these forces are so employed in Ireland and partially in Scotland, and with excellent effect. They render valuable assistance, and no interference with their regular duties is occasioned by it. The evidence which we have received from the chief constables of several counties, as well as from magistrates and others, warrants us in the opinion that the rural police might, without any disadvantage, give valuable aid in preventing violations of the fishery laws, and in bringing offenders to justice. Some persons, indeed, expressed hesitation or disapproval as to this point, but their objections were chiefly based on two grounds; either they apprehended an increased charge upon the county rates, or they objected to make the police in any manner instrumental to the protection of mere private

rights. We, however, by no means recommend either the increase of the police force (unless indeed the funds for extra men could be wholly supplied, in accordance with the principle of the present Police Act, from the fisheries themselves), nor the abstraction of the men from any of their regular duties. But, in the performance of those duties, they might, we believe, in many, if not in all, districts conveniently exercise at the same time a certain supervision of the rivers, and the mere fact of their being empowered so to do would lend a strong moral support to the law. We would emphatically disclaim any design of converting the police, as some persons seemed to fear, into "keepers" for the benefit of private fishery rights. It is for the protection of the interests of the public generally, and for the repression of those offences which the law regards as committed against the public weal, that their intervention is recommended. Enactments against fishing out of season, against selling unseasonable fish, against destroying the spawning fish, or the young fry, against nocturnal marauding, lawless meetings and the use of illegal implements, are of this character. Such enactments are made for the interest of the community, not for the benefit of proprietors. They tend to the promotion of that object, assuredly not a private one, which our commission was appointed to promote, "the increase of a valuable article of food for the benefit of the public."

We were informed by some of the officers of your Majesty's coastguard (whose assistance during our inquiry we are happy to acknowledge) that the aid of that force might conveniently be given in the protection of the fisheries. We have no doubt that such service as they would be able to render at their various stations, would afford a valuable support to the law.

It may be convenient to add here, that power should be given both to watchers and all other persons concerned in the protection of the fisheries, to pass along the banks of rivers in the exercise of their duties. The law is at present defective in this particular.

Having now stated the arrangements which we propose for the management and maintenance of the fisheries, we proceed to specify the regulations and restrictions as to the modes of fishing which we deem necessary to be adopted, in order to restore them from their present depressed state and develop their power of production.

Of these none is more important than the regulation of the close season. We have already remarked upon the evils resulting from the present anomalous and inadequate provisions of the law on this subject. In order to the recovery of the fisheries, it is essential that the time fixed for suspension of fishing should both commence so early, and be of such reasonable duration, as to protect the salmon from capture or disturbance throughout the breeding season. The question now is, whether the close time should be made uniform as regards all rivers, or variable, and if uniform, for what period it should be fixed.

The arguments for and against uniformity of time were frequently brought before us in the course of our inquiry. A strong ground in favour of such a rule is the convenience that would result from it, in enforcing the law for the suppression of unseasonable fishing. It would always be difficult to prove against an offender that a fish had been taken in any one river after close time, so long as it was open to him to allege that it had been caught in another river not yet closed; but an Act which should declare that no salmon should be sold in any part of the kingdom after a given day, would strike a great blow at a wide-spread abuse which now exists. It

would be necessary, indeed, in order to make the remedy complete, that the law as to close times for Scotland and Ireland should be assimilated to that of England.

Against an uniformity of close time it was urged in many quarters, that some rivers are naturally different in regard to season from others; that, in these, the fish do not go up till later in the year to spawn; and that to close them, on the 1st September, would be virtually to prohibit most of the proprietors on such rivers from ever getting a salmon at all. Among the fishermen who get their livelihood by fishing in the navigable waters, or estuaries, we found in many places a strong desire to extend the season even beyond the times now prescribed by law; the notion in their minds, as it appeared, being simply this, that their calling was a precarious and declining one, that restriction was a hardship *per se*, and that the more fish they could take, the better for their interests.

With regard to the alleged difference of season in certain rivers, we think that artificial causes have much more concern in producing such anomalies than the laws of nature.

The great breeding season in England and Wales of all the fish of the salmon kind is in the months of November, December, and January. We state this as a fact, and believe it will not vary more than a fortnight in any river; nay, more, that the same season extends to Scotland and Ireland, and that, in reality, it is nearly uniform throughout the United Kingdom. In some seasons it may commence a little earlier, or be continued a little later; but the principal breeding operations are performed chiefly in the three months mentioned. To accomplish this, the great instinctive rush of the fish to their breeding waters takes place in September and beginning of October, even in August some fish are getting heavy in spawn. The rush upwards increases as the season advances.

It depends, we believe, a good deal on the manner in which a river is fished and managed, to make it, within certain limits, earlier or later. Reference has been already made to that natural law by which a distribution of the spawning fish, if left to follow their instinct undisturbed, takes place along the whole course of a river, from its lowest to its highest point. It follows that, in order to enable the upper waters to be fully stocked, it is necessary to afford a free run to the early spawning fish, which are naturally impelled to seek the highest parts of the stream to breed in. If, however, in consequence of an undue extension of the fishing season, these fish are cut off in their passage up, it follows that no stock will be left to replenish the river, except those later fish which make their ascent under the protection of the close time. It is in this way that some rivers are artificially made later and the fact accounted for, which is alleged as remarkable by many witnesses that "our river has become later than it used to be." We regard this as only the necessary result of over-fishing. On the other hand, by making the close time begin earlier, in fact, by bringing it into accordance with the real breeding season, by thus enabling the fish that breed early to ascend early, the reproduction of their species and the return of the fish to the sea are correspondingly accelerated, the natural state of things is restored, and the river that had become late is made earlier. This, indeed, is not mere speculation. Experience has fully proved the fact in Ireland, where the enforcement of an earlier closing season has produced within a few years a corresponding early supply in certain rivers. This result is so fully appreciated by the persons interested in the fisheries,

[199]

even by the common fishermen, that although once opposed to early closing, they are now so entirely convinced of its expediency, that they have in some cases actually applied to the commissioners, in whom a limited discretion is vested, to appoint a still earlier date for shutting up the rivers.

We are bound to state that, in our opinion, the reasons in favour of uniformity of close seasons greatly preponderate. If, by the laws of nature, the breeding season is everywhere the same, why should the regulation, which is designed to protect the breeding operations, differ in point of time? We are persuaded that the offence of killing or dealing in unseasonable fish can never be suppressed, unless all fish sold or offered for sale after a given day, wherever taken, are declared by law unseasonable. The evidence of Mr. Ridpath, and other eminent fish salesmen of London, is decisive on this point. There is at present no fixed test of an "unseasonable" fish. There is no season at which the sale of salmon is absolutely unlawful. There is, of course, great difficulty in proving out of what river a fish was taken. The recommendation of the Lords' committee, before referred to, that after a certain day, allowing some short interval after the closing for nets, the sale shall be unlawful, would put the law upon a definite footing, would greatly check the present infractions of the close time, and would be received with satisfaction by the fair-dealing members of the trade, who feel that a snare is presented by the existing state of the law, and that an advantage is given over them to the unfair dealers.

With regard to the duration of the close season, the only restrictions imposed by the general law, is this—that it may not exceed 150 days, (58 Geo. 3, c. 43). There is no minimum time fixed, and the dates of closing and opening are left absolutely to the decision of the quarter sessions; a discretion which they have exercised, as has been shown, with the most unbounded latitude.

With respect to the commencement of the term, the evidence given to us, both in the various localities and by some of the fish salesmen of London, before referred to, leads us to the conclusion that net fishing cannot be continued after the beginning of September without serious injury to the rivers, by diminishing the breeding stock.

It clearly appears from this evidence that of the fish taken in that month a considerable proportion are more or less advanced in spawn. The waste of life and injury to the rivers caused by the capture of these fish are too evident to need insisting on. But we wish to record our own conviction that, if it is desired to restore the fisheries to their full productiveness, it is not by this test alone that the question of close time should be decided. It is not merely because some of the fish killed after a certain date, are in a spawning state, or unfit for food, that we would prohibit the capture at that period. The question, in our view, turns rather on the sufficiency of the quantity of breeding fish let up to stock the spawning-grounds, and so to replenish the waters. It is with a river as with a farm: as men sow, so will they reap. If the upper parts of the stream, where the breeding operations take place, are fully sown with seed, the produce will be in proportion large, and the benefit must be shared by all; not limited to the proprietors above, whom a narrow jealousy falsely regards as gainers by the loss of those below them, but extending throughout, even down to the lowest fishermen on the tideway, whom all the salmon that are bred above must necessarily pass in every transit they make, and who, consequently, reap

the first fruits, and get the largest share of every increase in the produce of the waters. It is on this ground, in order to develop to the full extent the capabilities of the waters, and a natural fecundity of the fish, that we believe the enactment by law of a comparatively early close time would be attended with most beneficial effects. In fact, that it is essential to the restoration of the fisheries. The evidence further convinces us that the measure for preserving the breed of fish will not be complete, unless the close time be continued until, at least, the end of January. Not only do the breeding operations continue throughout that month, even sometimes beyond it, but the license to fish in January, which is now enjoyed in the Severn, and several other rivers, leads to the destruction of many of the spent and unspawned fish, which it is sheer waste to kill when they are valueless for food. While a large number of these are destroyed, which, if spared, would soon recover their condition; the proportion of clean fish taken thus early in the season is extremely small. We have ascertained this fact from inquiry into the supply to Billingsgate market, and from other sources, and we are convinced that the gain derived by the captors of these few good January fish is unimportant, compared with the damage inflicted on the fisheries by opening a door to the destruction of unseasonable fish. From the 1st of September to the 1st of February is a period of 153 days, little more than the present legal maximum. We recommend that salmon-fishing with nets and all other engines, rods only excepted, in the rivers and estuaries, should be closed by law between the above dates.

In order to afford full protection to the breeding fish, it would be necessary that the regulation should extend, as it does in Ireland, to the adjacent sea-fishings.

With regard to angling, we think that some prolongation of the fishing season ought to be allowed. It is not with a view to confer a privilege upon a particular class of persons, that this recommendation is made, but solely for the protection of the rivers, and for the benefit of all parties who would participate in an increased production of salmon.

It has been found by experience in all the three countries, that the surest way to increase the stock is to give the upper proprietors an interest in preserving them. The upper waters are, in fact, the *nursery* of the fish; it is there that the breeding operations take place, it is there that the wasteful destruction committed by poachers and depredators, if suffered to have their way, is carried on. It lies with those to whom the rights of fishing, and the lands adjacent to those parts of the streams belong, either to permit the ruinous waste of the breeding fish to go on, or to take measures for protecting them. They cannot take either course without, in the one case, conferring a benefit, and in the other, permitting an injury, to all the parties lower down. But it is almost needless to say, that they *will* not make exertions or incur expense to preserve the fish, unless encouraged to do so by being allowed to reap some share of the produce of the waters.

If the fish are allowed to pass up so as to afford them amusement or profit, they will take pains to preserve the breed, but not otherwise. It is highly expedient, therefore, and directly for the interest of even the lowest fishermen of the tideway, to favour whatever measures tend to promote angling in the upper waters, since upon angling naturally follows protection, and the increase of the breeding stock. An illustration of this is afforded by the fact, that all the voluntary associations, which we met with in various parts, and to which the fisheries at present are certainly much

indebted, originated with anglers, and were formed for the promotion of rod and line fishing.

It may be added, in answer to objections which may be made against giving an extension of time to rod fishing, that, as it is pursued for amusement rather than for commercial profit, so it is much less destructive to fish than the other modes of taking them; in fact, if the rivers were once well stocked, the whole quantity likely to be taken by rod and line, would be comparatively inconsiderable. On the other hand, the encouragement and extension of angling on the upper waters would be attended with beneficial results, both private and public.

It would increase the rent of the private fisheries, would make the rates to be levied on that property, according to our proposal more productive, lightening thereby the burden to other parties; and it would have the further effect, which has been sensibly felt in some parts of Scotland and other places where good angling is to be had, of attracting visitors to remote districts, circulating money and affording employment to the people.

There are several precedents in recent legislation for the exception now proposed. The Irish acts contain such provision. The acts for regulating the fisheries of the Tweed, of the Tay, and of the Annan, give an extension of time for rods. The Lords' report on Scotch fisheries recommends it as a general enactment for Scotland.

If the principle be sanctioned, the time to be allowed is a matter of detail for consideration. Taking into account the many interruptions to the angler from the state of the weather and the water, we think that a prolongation of this season from four to six weeks beyond the time when it is closed for netting, would not be unreasonable.

It should be added, that in case the proposed privilege should be extended to rod fishing, it ought not to affect the provision of the law making the sale of salmon after a certain date unlawful. This should be fixed in reference to the time allowed for nets. The anglers should content themselves with the benefit of the extension for amusement, not for commercial advantage.

With a view still further to facilitate the passage of the fish and to promote their distribution through the water while in season, we recommend that provision be made for enforcing under adequate penalties, the observance of a weekly close time, that is, the suspension of fishing by all methods during the open season between 6 P.M. on Saturday evening and 6 A.M. on the following Monday. The opinions of numerous witnesses of all classes whom we examined were favourable to such a regulation, and we do not believe it would be felt as a grievance by any party, while it would be likely to prove an important benefit to the fisheries. Such a provision does not exist at present by the general law of England, though it is found in some of the private statutes, as for example, in the Solway Act, and it has modern precedent and authority in its favour.

It is contained in the Irish Act 5 and 6 Vict. c. 106, in the Tweed and Annan Acts before referred to, and it is one of the recommendations of the Lords' committee.

There is one question connected with the close time, upon which we have felt some hesitation, viz. whether it would be expedient to invest the proposed central board with a power to modify the regulations of the law as to the commencement and termination of the net fishing. Such a discretion is possessed and has been freely exercised, by the commissioners under the

Irish Acts, and in their opinion it has worked beneficially. It has occurred to us, that such a provision might ease the operation of a new and uniform law, which, in its sudden application to districts hitherto governed by the most lax and incongruous regulations, might otherwise be thought arbitrary. It must be expected that the change from the very late close time which now exists on many rivers to a much earlier one, will disturb some prejudices and perhaps excite discontent. We think it desirable to concede somewhat to long cherished habits and opinions, confidently relying as we do, that experience of the effects of an improved system will gradually disarm prejudices, and will bring about, as it has done in a remarkable degree in Ireland, a voluntary adhesion to the principles of the law. If, indeed, such a power of modifying the close time as now suggested, should be vested in the central board, we would recommend that it should be strictly confined within fixed statutory limits; as for instance, that the board should be enabled to extend the fishing season only for a given number of days, about twenty-one at the utmost, after the day specified in the Act. And, since it has been found, on the other hand, that the fishermen on some of the rivers in Ireland, convinced after a short trial of the benefits of early closing, have actually petitioned the commissioners to restrict the fishing to a still earlier date than the law had required; so it would be desirable in the event of a similar change of opinion in England, to give the central board a power of accelerating, as well as of postponing, the commencement of the close time, and for the same number of days in either case. In this manner an earlier close time than we have at present ventured to recommend, might be gradually brought about, by the voluntary conviction and assent of the parties interested, without the need of further legislation. The time to be fixed, as above recommended, for the cessation of the sale of salmon, should of course be made so far variable as to conform to any variations which might take place, under the discretionary power, in the commencement of the close time.

We have only to add further with reference to this part of the subject, that we think it advisable that the close time to be fixed for salmon fishing should extend also to the brown or common trout, and to char. Opinions were almost unanimous in favour of such a regulation.

The breeding season of these fish nearly corresponds with that of salmon, they equally need protection, and if the same regulation be not made, there is reason to apprehend that under pretence of trout fishing, salmon would be taken during close time.

We are prepared, after a full consideration of the case, to recommend the total suppression by law of all fixed engines on the estuaries and sea coasts. The grounds upon which we have arrived at this conclusion, are the following:—

1. These engines, with few exceptions, are of modern invention. Stake nets have been scarcely known in England until within the last fifty years, and bag nets are still more recent; and they are opposed to the whole aim and spirit of the fishing laws, the object of which, as has been fully shown, was to secure to the salmon a free passage to and from the sea, and to cause an equitable distribution of them throughout the rivers.

2. These engines are baneful to the fisheries, not only on account of the number of fish which they destroy; but also because they scare and drive them away to sea, when they come in shoals seeking the rivers, thereby exposing them to be injured or destroyed in a variety of ways.

3. We feel assured that the exercise of this, as of all other forms of monopoly in the taking of salmon, is injurious to all parties, not excepting those who carry it on for their own profit; and that the benefit which would result from the opening of rivers for the free run of salmon, and the consequent increased production of them, would amply compensate all classes interested for the restriction imposed upon them for the common good.

4. The other measures proposed by us to give effect to the principle above stated, equally aim at the suppression of all exclusive modes of appropriating the produce of the rivers; and the enactment now recommended is in full accordance with, and an essential feature of, the general scheme, which affords, in our opinion, the best, if not the only mode of preventing the ruin of the fisheries.

The Legislature has, by a recent statute, sanctioned, in the fullest manner, the principle now asserted. By the Tweed Act of 1857 all fixed engines, of whatever kind, in the mouth or entrance of that river, which, by the definition therein contained, extends for nine miles along the coast, and five miles therefrom out to sea, are absolutely prohibited under severe penalties. Whatever plea could be urged by those who might think their interests affected by such a change in England and Wales, might have been advanced with quite as much force by the Scotch fishermen. The enactment in question was, however, sanctioned, after full inquiry, by committees of both Houses of Parliament.

This precedent was acted on to the full extent by a committee of the House of Commons, in the last session, which passed a similar enactment in the Ness and Beauly Fishery Bill. This bill was sent up to the House of Lords, but was suspended there, in consequence of the whole subject of the Scotch Salmon Fisheries being referred to the select committee, to whose report we have made frequent references. That committee reported their opinion, in the first instance, distinctly in favour of the total abolition of fixed engines, both in the rivers and in the sea; and although, in regard to cruives in the rivers, they in some degree modify their conclusion out of deference to the rights of individuals, they absolutely proscribe all other fixed engines, their recommendation being in these terms:—

3. "That stake and bag nets, and all other fixed engines, other than cruives already existing, shall be declared illegal in rivers and in the estuaries of rivers, and that their use shall be prohibited within such distance of the mouth of every river and estuary as the central board may deem proper."

In the Irish Act it was thought expedient not to abolish, but only to regulate and restrict, the use of stake and other fixed nets; but, in our opinion, as in that of other persons who are well competent to judge, this constitutes an imperfection in the law, and, for the sake of the true interests of the fisheries, is a matter to be regretted.*

It should be borne in mind that the effect of the recommendation now

* "I think it was an unfortunate thing for the salmon fisheries in both countries when stake nets and bag nets were first invented, which was a recent thing. I think there is something exceedingly injurious in placing those fixtures, which remain day and night, in the tracks and pathways of the fish. In Ireland we had a great deal of discussion, and the Act, which was passed in 1842, was a sort of compromise; we took that Act sooner than not get any Act at all, but my opinion at the time was that, for the benefit of the country, it should have been abandoned altogether, rather than sanction stake weirs and bag nets so far as they are sanctioned."—*Evidence of W. J. Ffennell, Esq., Inspecting Commissioner in Ireland, before the Lords' Committee on Scotch Salmon Fisheries.*

made, if adopted by the legislature, will not be retrospective only. In the event of the restoration of the fisheries to a productive state, it is of the utmost importance to guard by anticipation against the employment of fixed engines in places where they have not been introduced hitherto. Above all, it should be remembered that the enactment which we advise would be no innovation in the law; and that to debar parties from the use of engines of modern origin, which the former statutes did not prohibit, only because they did not contemplate their adoption, is only to remit them to those old and legitimate modes of fishing, which were practised in times when the rivers were most productive and the trade of fishermen was most profitable.

We now come to consider the case of that description of weirs, which, although at present offering serious obstacles to the passage of the fish in the rivers, ought neither to be removed nor interfered with in any way that would make them less serviceable for the purposes for which they were constructed. Of this class are weirs erected for the purposes of navigation, irrigation, waterworks, or mills, not combined in the latter case with any trap or contrivance for taking fish. The interests, whether public or private, involved in these undertakings are entitled to respect, and we should be unwilling to counsel any measures which might lessen their usefulness or impair their value. Happily it has been proved by experience, that there is no incompatibility between the full efficiency of structures of this kind, and the adoption of means by which they may cease to afford any obstacle to the passage of the salmon. In Ireland the difficulty is in course of removal by affixing to the weirs passes or ladders, whereby the surplus water is made available for enabling the fish to surmount them, whatever their height may be. The Irish commissioners are invested with power to enforce the construction of these ladders on the proprietors of the weirs, but subject to this condition, that they do not in anywise interfere with the action of the mills or diminish the water power. There has been no difficulty whatever in satisfying this condition; no dispute or conflict with the mill-owners or other parties interested has arisen, and experience has proved what form of ladder is the most effective and economical.

That which is now generally adopted in Ireland is taken from the model of one which was put up over the river Teith in Scotland by the late Mr. Smith of Deanston. The average cost of putting up one of these contrivances may be stated at about 60*l*. Where peculiar difficulties arise, as sometimes happens, from the imperfect structure of the weir itself, the cost may be somewhat higher.

The success of this mode of obviating a great obstacle to the well-being of the fisheries, may be considered as fully proved, and it affords much encouragement to a further extension of the remedy.

It has accordingly been adopted by the recent Tweed Fisheries Act, and it is recommended by the Lords' committee, that it should be universally applied in the case of mill dams and dykes, as well as for overcoming natural obstacles, throughout Scotland. It has also been successfully adopted in Canada, in order to enable the salmon to ascend the weirs in that country, erected for the purposes of the timber-sawing mills.

We have no hesitation in advising that it should be made the law henceforth for England and Wales. We found no objections offered to the principle by those to whom this measure was suggested in the course of our inquiry.

We think that the local boards should be authorized to apply the same

method for enabling the fish to surmount natural obstacles, subject to proper regulation.

It remains to explain the mode in which the expense of such works should be defrayed. Prospectively, we think that it should be made compulsory on all individuals or corporations who may hereafter erect a weir across a stream, to affix to it, at their own expense, a salmon ladder, to the satisfaction of the proper fishery authority. It appears merely just that those who may hereafter set up, for their own profit, a structure which would otherwise be injurious to other interests, should provide the remedy for counteracting such injury.

The case of ancient weirs stands upon a different footing. It might be regarded as a hardship if parties, who have long enjoyed an unqualified right of this nature, were to be required to provide funds to meet an obligation which hitherto the law has not imposed upon them. In these cases we think the ladders should be erected at the cost of the local boards by means of the special fund before referred to.

There is, however, a class of existing weirs in respect to which we think the burthen of providing the means of transit for the fish should be laid, not upon the public, but upon the party by whom they were constructed, or to whom they actually belong. We found certain modern weirs which had recently been put up, or had been altered in such a manner as materially to increase the obstruction before offered by them. In some cases companies or public bodies appear to have executed the powers placed in their hands with a total disregard to the injury they were inflicting on the fishery, and the absence of any official authority for the protection of the waters has induced an acquiescence in the nuisance. It appears to us, that it would be equitable and right to oblige all parties who have erected or have "enhanced" any weirs within a given period, say twenty years, to construct a passage over them for the fish at their own expense.

The case of private fishing weirs in the rivers is one of much more difficulty. Although we cannot withhold our conviction that it would be greatly for the advantage of the fisheries, and even of the owners of these structures themselves, to include them for abolition in the same category with the fixed engines in the tideways, and although we earnestly desire to see this result brought about, if not by the force of law, yet by some other means, we are nevertheless restrained in some degree by those considerations which have qualified, as before stated, the judgment of the Lords' committee in regard to cruives. These fishing weirs or traps, though they partake of the same character as fixed engines, differ in this respect from the stake and fixed nets in the tideways, that while the latter are recent inventions, the former are, in many cases, of great antiquity, conveyed or recognized by ancient grants and referred to in Acts of Parliament.

At the same time there is no defence to be made for these weirs in regard to their mischievous consequences to the rivers where they exist, their direct and indirect effect in preventing the increase of fish, and their inconsistency with the general tenor and spirit of the fishery laws. There can be no hope of restoring the fisheries to a proper state of productiveness, until these machines for impeding and destroying the salmon can in some way or other be got rid of. Injurious as they are to the public, they are, under present circumstances, of insignificant value to the proprietors, the depreciation caused both by their agency and by other circumstances having reduced the produce derived from them—or the rental of them, when let—to a very

low point. This circumstance, indeed, should make the removal of them less difficult. We entertain sanguine hopes that, provided a better system of management can be inaugurated, and the reform of other abuses vigorously begun, the abolition of these great obstacles to the improvement of the salmon-rivers may be speedily brought about. If the owners of them, the majority of whom are opulent proprietors, men of intelligence and high position, can be brought to recognize the advantage, not only to the public, but to their own property, of opening the rivers, and giving full development to the production of fish; and if they see other hindrances to this object removed, especially the destructive fixed engines in the estuaries and tideway—we feel much confidence, relying on facts that have come within our own knowledge, that many of them, at least, will no longer allow any privilege of their own to stand in the way of the general good. We are aware that some proprietors of cruives, both in England and Scotland, alive to the true policy of encouraging the breed of fish, have voluntarily made this concession for the benefit of the community.

If, indeed, the continuance of private fishing weirs should, out of regard to prescriptive enjoyment, be sanctioned by the legislature, we are clearly of opinion that they should in all cases be placed under such regulation and supervision, as may guard against these abuses in the management of them, which, as we ourselves witnessed, are now too prevalent, and against any further encroachment upon public rights. In not a few cases there is reason to believe that the owners or the tenants of these structures have taken advantage of the general neglect, to increase the height or alter the construction, in such manner as to offer greater impediments and cause more certain destruction to the fish. Against such attempts a vigilant protection must be provided for the future. Moreover, in order to prevent these weirs being used so as to form, in violation of the intention of the law, an absolute bar to the passage of the fish, we recommend that in every case the proprietor should be required to leave, what is called in the language of the Irish Acts, a “Queen’s gap,” or “Queen’s share,” that is, an opening of certain dimensions prescribed by law, sufficient to allow the passage of some proportion of fish to the upper waters. By the Irish Acts this regulation is imposed upon all private fishing weirs, and the inspecting commissioners are invested with the necessary powers for enforcing such alterations in their structure as may give full effect to this provision for the benefit of the public. Similar enactments should be adopted for England and Wales, and the same powers of compelling parties to conform to them lodged in the central board. These weirs should also be made subject to the inspection of the officers of the local boards, in order to ensure the punctual observance by them both of the annual and the weekly close time.

We may add that it might be convenient, in order to facilitate any arrangements which the local boards may desire to make for buying off, through the means of public subscription or otherwise, any private fishing rights, adverse to the general interests on the rivers, to apply those provisions of the Lands Clauses Consolidation Act which relate to the purchase of lands by agreement, to the redemption of such privileges.

The last case of obstruction on the fresh waters which demands consideration is of a very serious character, and requires in our opinion to be vigorously dealt with. Of all the causes of injury to the rivers which came under our notice, none are more actively mischievous than the various modes practised for taking the salmon in connection with mills and mill

streams. It is obvious that mills, from their structure and position, afford many facilities to arrest and destroy the fish; and it is not to be wondered at, if, in the absence of protecting power over the fisheries, the tenants of the mills and the persons in their employ, have turned these opportunities to account. We found that it was a very common practice to place baskets in the mill streams to catch the fry in their passage down, and also that netting and other devices for killing the salmon in the watercourses appurtenant to mills, were employed to a great extent. But the worst advantage taken of the powers, which, for purposes of public utility, have been conceded to the mill-owners, has been the construction by them of fishing-traps in connection with their weirs or dams. We believe that these contrivances have been, in most instances, set up without any warrant or title; in blocking up the whole course of the rivers against the passage of the fish they form a standing violation of the principle, if not the letter, of the law; and we are convinced that, if allowed to carry on their destructive operations as heretofore, all other measures that may be taken for the increase of the supply of salmon will be unavailing. It is chiefly by such means as these that the produce of the rivers has been brought down to its present low ebb, and, owing to that very circumstance, the value of these engines to the proprietors is so small as to bear no proportion at all to the public mischief they inflict.

There is no mode that we are aware of, in which the evil caused by this class of engines can be alleviated, compatibly with the maintenance of the milling power. The ladders above suggested, as applicable to the case of simple mill weirs, would not be available where traps are attached to mills, inasmuch as the water required for the one would be abstracted from the other. In like manner, the water power would be affected, if the millers were required to observe, what was called in the language of the old laws of Scotland, a "Saturday slap," or weekly close time, or to leave such an opening as has been above described under the term of a "Queen's share."

There remains no alternative but either to allow the continuance of this abuse to neutralize any other good which legislation might effect, or to suppress the mischief *in toto*, by prohibiting the use of any device or contrivance for stopping or killing fish in connection with mills or mill streams.

Regarding the well-being of the fisheries as incompatible with the power of converting mills into fishing engines, we do not hesitate to recommend that the privileges of the mill-owners should be restricted within those limits which the exigencies of their calling and the public interests require; and that, while their water-right should be strictly respected, the incidental advantage which they have appropriated, to the great detriment of their neighbours and the community, should be no longer permitted to them. We do not indeed propose to deprive them of their right to take fish, by any legitimate means, in waters adjacent to their mills to which they may be entitled. It is the misapplication, as we consider it, of machinery and facilities which were intended for a wholly different purpose, to which the proposed restrictions would be confined.

With respect to the size of the mesh of nets used for salmon fishing, we received a considerable amount of evidence, and it is a point in which, in some localities, especially by the common fishermen on the Towey, much interest was evinced. The dimension of the mesh prescribed by the Act of 1 Eliz. c. 17, and the 1 Geo. 1. st. 2. c. 18, is $2\frac{1}{2}$ inches, measured from knot to knot. Under the Irish Fishery Acts it is $1\frac{1}{2}$ inch. We think that

the size of mesh prescribed by the English Acts may be considered as rather too restrictive, especially in regard to such rivers as the Towey, in which the sewin, or sea trout, form an important element in the fishery.

We are of opinion that if the mesh were limited to two inches from knot to knot, it would be an equitable regulation, and would be satisfactory to the majority of the parties interested. It is almost needless to add, that whatever provision on this subject the law may make, should be capable of being effectually enforced. The present enactments are notoriously evaded.

It would be desirable, in our opinion, to prohibit, under an efficient penalty, the sale of salmon roe, which is now carried on, as we found in the course of our inquiry, to a large extent. This article fetches a high price, and the ready sale which it meets with affords a great encouragement to poachers and others to destroy fish heavy with spawn and violate the close season.

The last recommendation which we have to make is, that all the acts, both public and private, which now apply to the salmon fisheries of England and Wales, should be repealed, and a new comprehensive measure enacted in their stead. The necessity for such a remedy for the confusion and inefficiency of the existing laws, has been already made apparent. We do not feel it incumbent on us in this report to specify the various provisions which would be required in a new statute. The existing acts, indeed, are not so much at fault in their scope and intention,—for the evils to be cured have been notorious and clearly felt—as they are defective in their remedies and procedure, and difficult of execution.

We have only to add one remark with respect to the Solway Frith, and to the rivers flowing into it, viz., that in our opinion both the English and Scottish sides ought to be similarly administered. Whether it be thought expedient to include these waters under a general act for England, or under such a general measure for Scotland, as is recommended by the Lords' committee, at all events, we think that they ought to be managed as a whole, and under an uniform system.

In conclusion, we desire humbly to represent to your Majesty the conviction impressed upon our minds by all that we have seen and heard, that a national property, of great value and importance, which was, in early times, watched over and encouraged by the legislature, has, through improvidence and neglect, been suffered to decline; and unless timely measures be adopted for its recovery, is threatened at no distant period with total ruin.

It is worthy of remark that the salmon fisheries, both of Ireland and Scotland, though smaller in extent, and not superior in natural capabilities to those of England and Wales, have each received much more care and attention in recent times, and are at the present moment far more productive.

Among other causes which have brought about this result, it may be that the greater development of other sources of wealth, especially of manufacturing industry, in this part of the kingdom, has induced a disregard, and in some cases even a sacrifice, of the fisheries. But we are convinced that it is neither prudent, on the one hand, to neglect what might become a fruitful source of revenue and employment, neither is it in anywise necessary that the cultivation of one class of interests should involve the destruction of another. Under judicious management, we have no doubt that the salmon fisheries of England and Wales may be made to yield a large commercial value, and they are capable of supplying no inconsiderable amount

of valuable food for the consumption of the people. Under the circumstances of the present time, we venture to think that the last consideration is by no means to be overlooked. While the population of the country is rapidly increasing, and every effort to augment the stock of food barely suffices to keep it up to the demand, it becomes of the utmost importance that no source of increased supply should be neglected. The sea-coasts and rivers of England are furnished by nature with a rich provision of animal food, which requires neither expense to maintain, nor labour to cultivate it, but needs only to be spared during a certain season in order to increase the store, and to be allowed freely to follow those instincts which are essential to its production. The improvement of the salmon fisheries is a matter which concerns the public at large far more than any individual proprietor. To the latter, the decrease of numbers may be compensated by increase of price. To the former, it involves a decrease of food. The causes which have reduced the fisheries to their present state of exhaustion are clear and palpable, and they admit, to a great extent, of being remedied by legislation. By the adoption of such measures as we have felt it our duty to recommend, subject to whatever modifications the wisdom of Parliament may determine, we feel confident that an important addition to the sum of public and private wealth may be made from this source, and an enlarged field opened at the same time to the industry of a valuable class of your Majesty's subjects. Whatever sacrifices for this end may at the outset be required on the part of individuals, are more apparent than real, and will, in the course of a very few years, be amply compensated by the result. Every fact elicited during our inquiry bears witness to the conclusion, that an open river is the best for all, and that a recurrence to the ancient and clearly-pronounced policy of this country, by the removal of obstructions from the waters, is the sure and only road to the restoration of the fisheries.

PUBLIC INCOME AND EXPENDITURE.

AN ACCOUNT of the PUBLIC INCOME and EXPENDITURE of the UNITED KINGDOM, in the Years ending the 31st day of March, 1860 and 1861; distinguishing the Actual Payments for the Expenses incurred in the Collection and Management of the Revenue; the Charges of the Public Debt (the Terminable Annuities being valued by Estimate); the Expenses of the Civil Government; the Allowances to the Royal Family and his Majesty the King of the Belgians; the Establishment of the Lord Lieutenant of Ireland; the Expenses of the Two Houses of Parliament, and the Civil Departments, the other Pensions on the Consolidated Fund, on the Gross Revenue; and the Civil List; also, the Payments for the Administration of Justice, Diplomatic Expenses, and the Sums voted for the Army, Navy, and Miscellaneous Services; also, the Public Works, Bounties, Post Office, the Quarantine and Warehouse Establishments; and all other Payments not coming under any of the foregoing Heads. (Mr. William Williams.) 25th June, 1861. (56 of 1862.)

INCOME.

	Year ended March 31st, 1860.	Year ended March 31st, 1861.
Customs and Excise :	£	£
Spirits—Foreign	987,734	890,169
Rum	1,535,921	1,733,446
British	9,778,960	9,225,539
Malt	6,648,881	6,208,813
Hops	456,160	630,135
Wine	1,634,287	1,144,794
Sugar and Molasses	6,007,081	6,067,390
[210]		

PUBLIC INCOME AND EXPENDITURE.

79

	Year ended March 31st, 1860.	Year ended March 31st, 1861.
	£	£
Tea	5,404,874	5,419,552
Coffee	441,437	439,423
Tobacco and Snuff	5,596,513	5,606,488
Butter	107,986	—
Cheese	47,461	—
Currants and Raisins	530,610	321,062
Corn	499,268	868,526
Silks	225,573	—
Paper	1,307,740	1,342,186
Candles and Tallow	70,674	—
Glass	5,148	—
Timber	621,051	235,792
Charges on Deliveries, Bills of Lading, &c.	—	181,812
Excise Licences	1,463,814	1,492,687
Post-horse Duties		
Hackney Carriages	86,192	87,751
Stage Carriages	127,662	127,883
Railways	359,212	366,280
Miscellaneous of Customs and Excise	697,312	436,656
Stamps .		
Deeds and other Instruments	1,381,188	1,327,348
Probates and Legacies	3,344,733	3,450,119
Insurance—Marine)... ..	323,517	325,342
Fire	1,432,325	1,485,540
Bills of Exchange, Bankers' Notes	577,128	643,442
Newspapers and Advertisements	141,558	134,090
Receipts	387,874	436,602
Other Stamp Duties	451,768	566,386
Assessed and Land Taxes :		
Land Tax	1,137,034	1,144,672
Houses	796,881	822,936
Servants	198,231	202,105
Horses	358,587	368,242
Carriages	319,237	330,192
Dogs	193,644	197,520
Additional 10 per cent.	16,011	1,986
Other Assessed Taxes	217,948	77,417
Property and Income Tax	9,666,142	10,957,061
Post Office	3,310,655	3,407,063
Crown Lands	416,531	412,451
Other Ordinary Revenue and other Resources	1,801,584	1,453,101
Total income	71,104,127	70,569,998
Excess of expenditure over income	—	2,474,670
	71,104,127	73,044,668

EXPENDITURE.*

Revenue—Charges of Collection:		
Civil Departments—Customs	806,516	753,114
Excise	710,589	715,899
Preventive Service, Land Guard, Revenue, Police, Excise, and Harbour Vessels (Customs)	2,439	2,373
Stamps	191,835	185,659
Taxes	375,971	443,376
Other ordinary Revenues	28,308	30,988
Superannuation and other Allowances	426,801	446,687

* The aggregate of "Expenditure" in this account will not agree with that shown in the Finance Accounts, because the "Expenditure" in this return incurred in the collection and management of the revenue is founded on actual payments, while that included in the returns embodied in the Finance Accounts is founded on Exchequer Credits, in accordance with the provisions of the Act 4 & 5 Will. 4, c. 15, s. 24.

[211]

	Year ended March 31st, 1860.	Year ended March 31st, 1861.
Public Debt:	£	£
Interest on Permanent Debt	23,698,393	23,672,153
Terminable Annuities	4,320,385	1,946,633
Management	67,437	70,031
Unclaimed Dividends repaid	114,682	142,114
Interest on Exchequer Bills	302,829	300,087
Interest on Exchequer Bonds	135,000	100,000
Civil Government:		
Civil List—Privy Purse; Salaries of the Household and Tradesmen's Bills	371,800	371,800
The Allowances to the several branches of the Royal Family, to his Royal Highness Leopold Prince of Coburg (now King of the Belgians)†	143,788	143,335
The Lord Lieutenant of Ireland's establishment	25,231	25,251
The salaries and expenses of the Houses of Parliament (including printing)	159,557	158,369
Civil departments, including Superannuation allowances	729,128	716,496
Other Annuities, Pensions, and Superannuation allowances on the Consolidated Fund	206,925	202,537
Pensions, Civil List	18,260	18,160
Justice:		
Courts of Justice	1,194,559	1,171,006
Police and Criminal Prosecutions	1,267,572	1,273,631
Correction	1,039,349	791,709
Diplomatic:		
Foreign Ministers' Salaries and Pensions	163,061	172,458
Consuls' Salaries and Superannuation allowances	192,912	239,796
Disbursements, outfit	51,000	53,305
Forces:		
Army, including Ordnance—Effective; Charge	11,915,399	12,522,936
Non-effective; Charge	2,141,787	2,447,074
Navy—Effective; Charge	10,555,909	12,074,712
Non-effective; Charge	1,267,950	1,256,956
Operations in China (naval and military)	858,057	3,043,896
Expenses of fortifications, 23 & 24 Vict. c. 109	—	50,000
Bounties, &c., for promoting fisheries	10,754	11,898
Public Works	945,860	810,631
Payments out of the Revenue of Crown Lands, for Improvements	88,669	91,439
Post Office: Charges of collection and other payments	1,947,068	2,006,294
Quarantine Establishments	3,700	3,500
Miscellaneous not classed under the foregoing heads	3,175,785	4,578,726
Total ordinary expenditure	69,656,255	73,044,668
Excess of income over expenditure	1,447,872	—
Total, including bonds	71,104,127	73,044,668
Memorandum—		
The amount of Terminable Annuities at the end of each year was	2,094,941	1,860,473
In corresponding perpetuities, as estimated by Mr. Finlaison	592,388	568,432
Difference	1,502,553	1,292,041

* These sums are the net amounts paid to the Bank of England after deducting 60,000*l.* for composition for Stamp Duty, and 120,000*l.* contribution out of the profits of the Circulation Department, per Act 7 & 8 Vict., c. 32, and 2 per cent. on additional issue by Bank of England of 475,000*l.*, less additional compensation paid to bankers.

† No part of this allowance is at present paid for the use of King Leopold. The trustees, after discharging certain annuities and pensions to the establishment of the late Princess Charlotte, repay the balance of the annuity to the Exchequer. The sum so repaid in the last year was 37,000*l.*

TURKEY.

Papers relating to Administrative and Financial Reforms in Turkey, 1858-61.

ON the 9th August, 1858, the Earl of Malmesbury informed Viscount Stratford de Redcliffe, that it was the desire of her Majesty that he should proceed to Constantinople to take leave of the Sultan, which circumstances prevented him from doing when he ceased to exercise his functions as ambassador to his Imperial Majesty; and that at the same time he should impress on his Imperial Majesty the deep importance which her Majesty's Government attached to his faithfully and effectually carrying out the conditions of the Hatti-Humayoun without any unnecessary delay. On the 4th September, the Viscount arrived at Constantinople, and on the 22nd he was received by the Grand Vizier with great honour, and had a formal audience of the Sultan. On the 2nd October, the Viscount was admitted to a private audience of the Sultan, and the principal topic was that of reform, applied in part to the execution of the Sultan's decree, and in part to the irregular expenses lavishly incurred in the imperial palace. On the 18th October, the Viscount was again admitted to a private audience of the Sultan, preparatory to his departure, and on the 16th he was entertained at an official dinner given by the Grand Vizier.

On the 22nd October, Viscount Stratford de Redcliffe sent the following memorandum on Turkish reforms, which he had intended to use in Constantinople, but he thought better to submit it first for the consideration of her Majesty's Government:—Whatever difference of opinion may prevail as to the practicability of restoring the Turkish Empire to a state of independent vigour, it would be difficult to find any statesman, or, indeed, any thinking individual, who does not see in its continued weakness the danger of a grand European struggle for its partition. The formal engagements which have been contracted for the maintenance of its independence and territorial integrity, tend rather to show an apprehension of the calamity than to afford any lasting barrier against its occurrence. Experience is not favourable to a blind reliance on such pledges. The parties to the Treaty of Paris would not find it easy to adhere to them indefinitely, at the price of continual anxiety and frequent discussions. If the calculations of commerce are disturbed, and the internal progress of nations retarded by the prospect of wars and revolutions, it is more than desirable that the peace, the stability of Turkey should be made to rest on sure and natural foundations. In proportion as a State is administered on sound principles, and gives evidence of their effective application, it takes root in the opinion and commands the respect of mankind. Promoting by such means the productive exertions of its own population, it contributes to the security and advancement of the whole international community.

How different is the position of a Government which looks for safety to the guaranty of others! There is something discreditable in the confession of weakness which that dependence implies; something not free from danger, as it holds out a temptation to encroachment.

Whatever may be the intentional good faith of parties to a treaty of

SERIES B.

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[213]

guaranty, the treaty is always more or less founded on temporary circumstances. When the parties to it are numerous, it is exposed to the consequences of any eventual misunderstanding which may arise amongst them.

The case is clear: in matters so deeply affecting the peace of Europe, it is worse than idle to place an exclusive reliance on mere conventional arrangements. There is no magic in diplomacy. The real force of a guaranty must depend not only on the means of carrying it into effect, but on the motives for doing so suggested by present interests. It operates as a snare when it lulls the guaranteed Power into a false security. Its real value, in most cases, and especially in the case of Turkey, is to gain time for the protected party to remove the causes of its debility, and to work out its own independence by adequate exertions.

The Turkish Government has shown by many of its measures, and by the general course of its policy since the beginning of the century, that it is by no means insensible to the force of these unquestionable truths. The reigning Sultan has followed up the system of reform introduced by his immediate predecessors, and his imperial charter, promulgated in February, 1856, and recorded in the subsequent treaty of peace, leaves nothing to be desired but its execution in a right spirit, and the enforcement of corresponding measures.

It is in these respects that a motive power, capable of surmounting the resistance which in no country fails to oppose the establishment of great innovations, however salutary, is wanted. There is no lack of authority on the Sultan's part. The latent resources of his empire are immense. His revenues are increasing. His people would cheerfully conform to changes founded on justice, and calculated to protect as well as to promote the operations of industry. The difficulties are principally moral, the results of religious prejudice, of defective education, and of inveterate abuses in every administrative department. But Europe is at hand, with its science, its labour, and its capital. The Koran, the harem, and a Babel of languages, are, no doubt, so many obstacles to advancement in a Western sense. But the changes already in practice augur well for further improvement. Would it be reasonable to despair of a country where, in a comparatively short lapse of time, a regular army has been substituted for the Janissaries, where the influence of the priesthood has been effectually controlled, the arbitrary power of the provincial governors extinguished, the application of the Sacred law to judicial procedure greatly modified, the employment of Christians in the service of a Mahometan Government materially extended, the objections to borrowing on interest practically set aside, and liberty of conscience in religious matters solemnly proclaimed.

Surely with these miracles in our recollection, and with a knowledge derived from history, of the slow, interrupted process of reform in our own and other countries, we should not lightly abandon the hope we have embraced of Turkey's regeneration. Bearing in mind the additional assurances of its progress, traceable in such incidental facts as the command over Turkish troops entrusted during the late war to British officers, the Sultan's subscription in favour of the sufferers in British India, and the offers of auxiliary levies for her Majesty's service, proceeding from Mussulman chiefs in Turkey, we may continue, even with some degree of confidence, to ground our policy in the Levant on that expectation.

Supposing this view of the case to be correct, namely, that Europe, that England in particular, is deeply interested in the maintenance of the Ottoman empire, that guarantees by treaty afford no permanent security, that the only true basis of national independence is national strength, that the Sultan's proclamation, if practically carried out, would meet the exigencies of his empire, and that his authority, if duly exercised, would in time overcome the difficulty of supplanting one system of government by another—the problem to be solved is one which cannot be too soon or too earnestly considered. The problem itself may thus be stated: By what means and in what manner can the authority required for realizing the Sultan's intentions be directed to that object, and sustained with sufficient perseverance for its accomplishment?

The Sultan, when pressed on this subject by Lord Stratford, who, at the time was about to go home on leave, said that he was an honest man, that what he declared he meant, and that he had given the necessary commands to his Ministers. Hence it may be inferred that the Sultan's Government, rather than his Majesty, are answerable for any remissness in carrying the proclaimed measures into effect. Reshid Pasha was, however, Grand Vizier when the Sultan expressed himself as above, and Aali Pasha, his successor, is known to have declared his conviction that the empire could not long hold together without the reforms in question. In this uncertainty, accompanied as it is with strong reasons for believing that the difficulties, whencesoever they proceed, are by no means insuperable, we must conclude that want of proper determination, either at the palace or at the Porte, perhaps at both, is the real source of that backwardness which all observe and many lament. A dilemma is the consequence. If the Turks be abandoned to their own apathy, Europe will sooner or later be called upon to pay the costs. If an effective stimulant is to be applied, it must be sought in quarters foreign to the Government which requires its application. Little is to be expected from a change of Ministry at Constantinople. Public opinion, save in extreme cases, has no legitimate action in Turkey. The motive power must come from abroad; and to be available, it must be consistent in spirit, and, as far as possible, in form, with the rights of national independence. The obvious step as a beginning would be a friendly but distinct communication from her Majesty's Government to the effect that the slowness with which the execution of the Sultan's Hatti-Humayoun has proceeded is a subject of much anxiety to every friend of the Turkish empire; that her Majesty's Government attach an undiminished importance to measures proclaimed and recorded with so much solemnity; that looking to the sacrifices made by the Porte's allies on her behalf during the late war, they hold themselves entitled to expect that no unnecessary delay shall take place in the fulfilment of what so nearly concerns the interest of all Europe as well as the Sultan's honour; that otherwise they should feel the greatest repugnance to making any fresh sacrifices in support of a guaranty which was never intended to relieve the Porte from her undoubted obligation to establish her independence on the accomplishment of those reforms and developments which the Sultan himself had spontaneously adopted, and communicated to other Powers. It may be presumed that France would not object to take part in a declaration of this purport, and the other Powers who signed the treaty of Paris might be expected to second it in terms consistent with their respective positions.

Nearly two years and a half have now elapsed since the promulgation

[215]

of the Sultan's Hatt, and not much less since the ratification of the treaty of peace. The importance of the charter may be estimated by the fact of its being applicable to all the Sultan's subjects alike, whether Mussulmans or non-Mussulmans. It comprises, moreover, all the departments of administration, at the same time that it confirms all the old and existing privileges from the earliest times to the latest, including Gulhané and the Tanzimat. Though some of its provisions are of special application to those who were formerly designated rayahs, others in greater proportion affect the entire population of the empire. Its pervading principles are the reform of abuses, the fusion of classes, the development of resources, liberty of conscience, and improved intercourse with foreigners irrespective of religion. Its ultimate object is the conservation of the empire, together with the security of persons and property.

How much has been really done for the application of these principles is now the point in question.

With respect to the old concessions, renewed or confirmed by the imperial Hatt, there is not much to complain of. Abuses, however, continue to swarm in every department. The prohibition of bribery and corruption is merely on paper: no public example has yet been made of any public functionary accused of these offences. Some charges have been submitted to an inquiry, leading to no result. Though mixed tribunals have been established partially, the judicial procedure is still defective, and the course of justice impure. The new codes of law, which are said to be in progress, have yet to come into practice. Commissions have been formed for the amendment of prisons, and a better organization of the post-office and police; but no improvement of consequence has hitherto resulted practically from their labours. The fiscal department is quite as irregular and defective as ever. No official announcement of the budget has yet taken place. The admission of non-Mussulman members into the provincial councils is still only a form. The measures announced for the reformation of the Greek Church, in point of ecclesiastical salaries and preferments, are still only matters in discussion. The abolition of the "haratch" has been followed by the imposition of a war-tax, said to be more onerous than the former; and Christians, however admissible in theory to the Turkish army, are excluded from it in fact. No national bank has been established hitherto; and it remains to be seen whether the produce of the new loan raised in London will be steadily applied to the liquidation of debt and the withdrawal of paper circulation. The promise that foreigners should be allowed to hold real property in Turkey, on condition of some previous arrangements, remains a dead letter.

The picture exhibited in these remarks, though far from encouraging, has nothing to warrant a feeling of despair. Some of the abuses which call so loudly for redress require no further enactments for their suppression, but simply a strict enforcement of the existing regulations, and a real responsibility to be maintained by searching inquiries and effective penalties.

Looking to the department of material improvements, it would be unfair to deny that enterprises of interest and importance have been set on foot. Railways, loans, and telegraphs, have been successfully negotiated. Other concessions might have been granted with advantage to all parties. The drainage of the marshes at Alexandretta, the cleaning of the river Maritza, the completion of the road from Brussa to Ghemlik, and the construction of a good causeway from Trebizond to Erzeroom, are of this number.

The establishment of a proper control over ecclesiastical revenues and appointments in the Greek Church, by means of an assembly partly laic and partly clerical, has been retarded more by the Greeks themselves than by the Turks. The former, headed by a Prince long devoted to the Porte's service, acquiesced so readily in the measures adopted in lieu of the "haratch," that, faulty as they were, no foreigner could step forward to oppose them without incurring the blame of a misplaced and presumptuous interference.

It would be a mere waste of time to push the argument further on this occasion. What has been stated above may serve sufficiently to demonstrate the importance of obtaining an early and comprehensive enforcement of the Imperial reforms, the absence of any insuperable obstacles to the accomplishment of so vital an object, and the powerful motives which impel her Majesty's Government to take the lead in bringing the Sultan and his Ministers to a more active employment of their energies for that purpose.

Such a consummation is the more urgent as evils of alarming growth are constantly at work to render the condition of Turkey more precarious than ever. There is reason to believe that the regular army in all Turkey, though composed on paper of six corps, amounting in the whole to 180,000 men, does not in actual force exceed 50,000, of which number 8,000 are employed from necessity in the Island of Candia. Its equipments are incomplete, and the pay of the men is considerably in arrear.

The Sultan's extravagant expenditure has, nevertheless, sustained no effectual check. His numerous buildings were suspended only for a short time, or partially. The theatre which he has lately built near his palace, and the apartments belonging to it, are overloaded with the most costly ornaments and furniture.

The affairs of the Porte, meanwhile, continue to be conducted by the well-known set of Ministers, changing amongst themselves, but rarely admitting any younger candidates for office; and, what is worse, the old system of education, with a strong leaven of religious bigotry, is almost universally maintained. Even the Sultan's brother, living in the Imperial palace, and, according to Eastern practice, heir to the throne, has been brought up in the same narrow circle of knowledge, notwithstanding the example of Egypt, and the requirements of a new administrative and international policy.

On the 26th July, 1859, Sir H. Bulwer wrote to Lord J. Russell, on the same subject of Turkish reforms, as follows:—

Whether the Turks have done a great deal, or very little, depends on the point of view from which we look at the subject. If we compare Turkey as she is with what she was twenty-five or thirty years ago, the change is marvellous. Men who lived at the former period tell me, every day, they can hardly credit the state of things they see now, when they remember what existed in the days of their youth.

On the other hand, when you compare Turkey as she is, to what she ought to be, in order to stand side by side on equal terms with the first and most civilized States in Europe, the progress she has to make is so immense that that which she has already made appears almost insignificant.

In no countries are great reforms made, especially when they involve social changes, except as the generations which grow up in one set of ideas have been replaced by generations which grow up in another; but in this country especially, a country composed of various races with various

religions, each sect being exclusive and fanatical, and one race especially being the dominant one; in a country, moreover, which has always hitherto been ruled by a loose and undisciplined system of government, any change that would suit our notions of justice, government, and law, can only be a work of great difficulty and considerable time.

I may mention, however, that a regular army has been formed on something like the system that prevails in Prussia; and though this army is irregularly paid and kept, and the majority of its officers are ill-educated, it is nevertheless, upon the whole, an army that not only on prepared occasions appears creditably on parade, but has manifested in the field, and is capable, I am convinced, under suitable guidance, of again exhibiting there, sufficient discipline and courage to enable it to contend without dishonour against any of the great military Powers in Europe.

The military navy of Turkey is also fairly organized, and is perhaps as efficient as the empire requires, or, at all events, can expect to have, as long as the Turks, to whom the sea is odious, are alone employed in the naval service.

Life and property, which were formerly at the mercy not only of the Sultan, but of every Minister and Pasha, are now, on the whole, secure against any act of vengeance, illegality, and oppression, that is not sanctioned by a tribunal and the forms of law.

The Turkish tribunals, however, of all kinds, whether new or of more ancient date, are in most respects to be condemned, and of many the corruption is notorious, though not more so, perhaps, than that of other tribunals in other countries of Europe which I have visited. Indeed, the judicial reforms which have very recently been made, though evidently calculated to lead eventually to better things, improve them but slightly, if at all, at the moment.

As to the administration, it is not constituted without an idea of order and justice; it has rules and regulations, and safeguards against the abuse of power; but it is complicated and inefficient; and, in avoiding the extreme which formerly confided absolute authority to the caprice and will of an individual, there has arisen another in a series of checks and delays enervating all authority. This may be seen in the fact which recently took place at Jeddah; namely, that whereas of old a Pasha could put an innocent man to death at will, he cannot now execute the greatest criminal without referring, however distant his post, or however pressing the emergency, to the Porte.

I now pass to a subject interesting on account of its intrinsic importance, and interesting also on account of the various statements that are made concerning it—I mean the treatment of the rayahs, or Christian subjects of the empire.

In Constantinople and its immediate vicinity these have undoubtedly attained a greater degree of equality with the Mussulmans than could have been expected, considering the short space of time that has elapsed since the edict of Gulhané was promulgated.

There is still certainly a difference between the two classes, but this is rather a difference as between the upper and the middle class in other countries, than as between the infidel and the true believer. At a distance from the capital, however, such distinction is no doubt far greater, and depends, in a certain degree, upon the character of the population of the particular district, as well as on that of the governor appointed over it;

both of these serving to temper the general orders of the Porte. But it is also to be borne in mind that the Christian classes are not, even here, inferior only on account of their religion: they are nearly all belonging to that portion of society which in all countries not perfectly civilized and well-governed, whether Christian or Mussulman, are unfortunately oppressed. The Mussulmans in the provinces, indeed, when of the inferior classes, suffer perhaps even still more than the Christians from the effects of the bad government that maintains there; for the latter are usually in some degree protected by the foreign authorities, whereas the latter have no protector. The persecutions of the different sects of Christians, moreover, are not unfrequently caused by their several animosities, and the manner in which the one excites the local authorities against the other. Protestants, Catholics, Greeks, are usually involved in rival quarrels; and the Turk, who receives their several complaints, is urged to espouse the cause of the one or the other, by the momentary influence of the consul or consul-general who is most in vogue.

A little mischief also has, perhaps, been done by the indiscreet zeal and imprudent counsels of those foreigners whom motives of humanity and religion incline to become champions of the Christian races. By many of these, copies of the celebrated Hatti-Humayoun have been published and circulated throughout the country, whilst comments are made upon it calculated to make the people believe that the Mussulmans are to concede more, and the Christians to obtain more, suddenly and at once, than is practically possible under the most favourable circumstances. Hence, the one have become discontented under the influence of exaggerated hope; the other irritated, suspicious, and severe under the opposite influence of exaggerated fear.

It is likewise to be considered that the reformers in Turkey are, after all, as yet but a very small body of men in Constantinople; some of these are exceedingly able and well informed; they are, moreover, sincere in their desire of maintaining the system of which they are the patrons, for it gives them a monopoly of power: but, partly from a jealousy of younger aspirants, partly from an actual want of any number of persons fit for public employment, there are few to whom they can confide the execution of their designs, and thus they are either themselves overpowered by the multitude of details which crowd upon them, or they see their wishes frustrated by the incompetence of the agents they employ.

If I am asked what course we, amidst such circumstances, should pursue, I should say that I think we must, first, define to ourselves very clearly what it is possible to do, and what it is not; secondly, I think that we must endeavour to carry out what is possible, by a few simple measures that will not cause great expense, or be received with great repugnance; measures which the two embassies of France and England should agree to and urge perseveringly and seriously on the Sultan's Government.

The first measure necessary, I confess (in my opinion) is to go, in one point of view, somewhat backward, and by removing to a certain extent the multiplication of controls and counter-controls that now weigh down authority, throw a greater degree of responsibility on individuals, and give greater life and action to the Government itself.

A certain number of honourable positions should then be created for the Rayahs, which would elevate their character and increase the consideration in which they are held.

Thirdly, I would in the Christian provinces have some Christian authority—call him a vice-governor, or any other name—who should represent the sentiments and wishes of the Christians in a suitable manner to the local governor and to the central Government; and, I think, also, that a certain number of Christians should be admitted into a council where the questions relative to the administration of their provinces could be considered. I confess I think it would be vain to attempt to amalgamate entirely into one common system the different sects and races. Each now in a great measure governs itself and is accustomed to its own habits and mode of administration; and wherever it is possible for this still to be the case, it should be so. The task indeed of encountering all prejudices and all opponents at once would be more than any Government could cope with; but, on the other hand, in those cases of a mixed or general nature, where more than one sect is concerned, and where the interests of the general community are at stake, there mixed tribunals must have jurisdiction and the general authority prevail. It will be impossible, moreover, to attempt to carry any plan into effect with the assent of the ruling race, which should have for its evident object the placing of any other race over it. It is not a policy of religion alone which will prevent this. The Turk thinks he is superior to the Arab, as he thinks he is superior to the Armenian or Greek; and the habit of command has made him in many respects superior to both.

Independently, however, of this peculiar subject, the whole conduct of the Government here, and of its administration, has, as I have said, to be improved; and although, in many instances, it seems to me in the way of being so, its progress, I fear, will be slower than the times in which we live, and the dangers which surround it will allow, unless some extraordinary exertions are made, some extraordinary measures are adopted.

Turkey has, in fact, to be Europeanized to cope with its enemies or rivals in Europe; and I own I do not see any way in which it can be so with sufficient rapidity to be in time to meet coming events, unless by the agency of Europeans. If the Turks would freely employ Europeans in the different departments where their knowledge, energy, and habits of business are required, they might within a few years make a great advance, and educate a race that would hereafter dispense with European assistance. There seems, however, to this plan an insuperable repugnance, which is no doubt fostered by the peculiar position which foreigners hold in this country. The Turkish Government cannot appropriate such foreigners to itself, because they cannot be under its laws and jurisdiction. Here, indeed, is one of the great difficulties which, in considering the prospects and maintenance of the Turkish empire, one has to deal with.

Clear evidence on the part of Turkey of a firm desire to establish a Government that Europe would approve of, and a firm determination on the part of Europe to maintain this empire on such conditions, might suggest a reconsideration of our capitulations, with a view to their gradual modification; but I fear, in the present state of things, it is useless to do more than glance at this idea; and I thus conclude the sketch with which I have troubled your lordship, without, however, I fear, giving any very clear picture of what is in itself so confused, and without arriving at any very definite result.

What I have said, however, may be thus summed up:—Great changes for the better have of late years taken place in this country.

These changes are as rapid and general as could, under the circumstances, and within the time which has elapsed since their commencement, have taken place. But they leave an immense space of reform yet to be traversed. The position of the Christian population is considerably improved, and may be yet, by a few simple and not very difficult measures, much advanced. But I fear any extensive change must be gradual in its progress, and as it has always to be remembered that the Mussulman class is, generally speaking, the upper and proprietor class, so we are not to consider all the oppression which takes place in the provinces as oppression against the Christians, but often as oppression against the lower class of the population, both Mussulman and Christian. Good local governors, even with the existing laws, would go far to remove this; but the requisites for such governors are not easily found amongst the individuals from whom a Grand Vizier has to make his selection. The way, however, to form such governors is, to give those employed sufficient power for the purpose of executing the charge confided to them, and to inflict severe punishment on such as abuse this power. On the other hand, as to many branches of administration, namely, those which concern finance, the army, navy, telegraphs, public works, &c., these can only, in my opinion, be placed on an European basis with sufficient rapidity to meet the crisis with which Turkey is threatened, by the employment of competent Europeans; and the great thing is to persuade the Turks of this necessity, and to facilitate, as far as we can, the removal of obstacles that exist, or any prejudices they entertain against it.

To this he added in another letter of the same date:—

There is one reform to which I wish to give a separate place, which has long dwelt in my mind, and which, if practicable, will be of immense benefit not only to the native population of Turkey, but to the foreigners who inhabit it: in fact, I think it difficult to calculate its effects or to ascertain its benefits; neither do I conceive it altogether impracticable.

The reform to which I allude is the establishment of one general code and mode of procedure for the subjects of all the foreign States who reside in this empire. This will naturally lead to common tribunals, which might then be placed on a suitable footing adapted to the circumstances of the case.

The mixed tribunals which now exist of necessity furnish some ground for bringing the subjects of different States together in a court of justice, and though, according to the rule now adopted, the law varies in each particular case as the party may be prosecutor or defendant, it would surely be better for all parties to get rid of so absurd a rule, and to have a common law by which a man, whether as prosecutor or defendant, should have justice dealt out to him. Moreover, I have not the slightest doubt that if one code should be adopted for foreign States it would soon be a model to Turkey from which her new code would be formed; and that thus the way would be prepared better than it could be in any other for allowing to the Turkish Government those rights which every other Government exercises within its own dominions, the alienation of which renders its perfect independence impossible. There are difficulties, doubtless, in the way of this plan, and it may perhaps appear theoretical that I should propose it; but its scope is so wide that I think it may not unwisely be considered before dismissing it as unattainable.

On the 12th August, 1859, Sir H. Bulwer informed Lord J. Russell that the Turkish Government has adopted a measure for payment of the Sultan's

debts which the exigence of the case required (but which is simply of a palliatory nature), by the creation of new "consolidés" bearing 6 per cent. interest. It is calculated that the interest of these can be paid out of the revenue of the customs of Constantinople, after paying the interest on the English loan for which these customs are security. But all this is pure hypothesis.

Sir H. Bulwer, however, recommended the organization of a financial commission, to which all the proceeds of customs should be assigned, and which should pay regularly, in the first instance, the interest on the English loan.

On the 4th October, 1859, Sir H. Bulwer sent a copy of a memorandum presented to the Sultan by the representatives of the Powers, as follows:—

The representatives of the Powers who, while guaranteeing the maintenance and integrity of the Ottoman empire, have shown the especial interest which they attach to its prosperity, think it their duty, considering the serious circumstances of the present time, to call the careful attention of the Sublime Porte to the political and financial condition of the country. Europe has allotted to Turkey an important place in her midst; but she is quite convinced that a guarantee from without would not suffice to realize her wishes, if a Power thus fortified from without did not do something for itself, and if its Government did not bestir itself in the gradual and sustained application of those reforms the principles of which his Majesty the Sultan has so liberally and solemnly laid down. So vast a task would doubtless not be the work of a day, but its attainment will not allow of any delay; and in the period of transition which the empire has to traverse between the ruins of an abolished *régime* and the as yet unformed materials of a new one, a constant impulse is indispensable to stimulate the procrastinating, to calm the impatient, and compel one and the other to work for the common good.

Now, the representatives above designated regret to state, without pretending to point out the cause, that this impulse does not manifest itself in a way to attain the end towards which the Sublime Porte ought to be striving. That uneasiness which reigns in the minds of the different populations of the empire will only disappear when the whole mass of the nation shall see clearly, and at no distant period, the time when they will profit by the security resulting from the normal movement of a society satisfied with itself, quietly occupied with the development of its resources, and directed by an administration attentive to its material wants, an enemy of abuses, above all economical and intelligent in the employment of the public money. The accomplishment of these general conditions for the prosperity of the States is independent of the differences of religion and race; the question to be solved is the establishment of a government under which all the subjects of his Majesty the Sultan, Mussulmans and Christians, instead of suffering analogous wrongs, will participate in the same benefits.

On the 19th October, Sir H. Bulwer informed Lord John Russell that a Cabinet Council was held on the 13th, in the presence of the Sultan, for the declared purpose of taking into consideration the financial embarrassment and general state of the country, which resulted in the issue of the following imperial rescript respecting reforms:—

MY ILLUSTRIOUS VIZIER,—Finance is the fundamental basis, and the means of attaining strength and prosperity. Without credit and public confidence progress is impossible. When the natural resources of the

Ottoman empire are taken into consideration, it is certain that if its revenues were properly collected, and its disbursements regularly effected, it would, in a short time, gain strength and prosperity. But for some time past, owing to a variety of reasons, the injury done to the financial credit of the Ottoman Government has reduced the State to the crisis in which it finds itself; and the loans made at onerous and ruinous conditions of Galata merchants, in order to meet urgent and daily wants, as well as the divers sorts of paper-money that have been issued, have destroyed public confidence at home and abroad. To this being added a want of regularity in the mode of expenditure, the matter has come to this pitch.

As, by the grace of God, I propose, on my part, to use strenuous exertions for averting this danger, it is my positive royal order that the Ministers also shall not be lax in their efforts for the same object; and that they shall, without mixing up any personal objects of their own, and without concealing anything, propose such measures as shall be of advantage to the State. Such as act in opposition to this incur responsibility in this and the next world.

Seeing that the cessation of this confusion depends upon efficacious measures, let, for the safety of our religion and our State, the radical and accessory means for that end, those for doing away with and correcting practices that entail superfluous expenditure, and those that are required for recasting, by the grace of God, in a mode calculated to inspire public confidence, the general administration of this empire, be deeply and profoundly considered, and submitted to me.

On the 28th February, 1860, Sir H. Bulwer communicated a measure, which the Turkish Government was likely to adopt, with respect to taxation and the withdrawal of the *caimé* paper-money. The paper-money in circulation was still 618,978,160 piastres, and to meet it 70,341,458 piastres were still wanted, which the Turkish Government proposed to make up, partly by voluntary contributions of bankers, merchants, &c., partly by a tax on property, to be paid by landlords, and estimated to produce 35,000,000 piastres, and partly by a tax on industrial pursuits, to be levied on shopkeepers, tradesmen, &c. Sir H. Bulwer questioned the expediency of such a measure, and argued that foreigners and Englishmen especially cannot be called upon to pay such a tax, looking at the terms of the treaties in force. On the 24th April, Sir H. Bulwer reported on the state of affairs in the Turkish empire in the Moldo-Wallachian provinces, in Syria, but that, notwithstanding all difficulties, there were at the head of affairs men of integrity and ability, who would be able to raise Turkey to a satisfactory condition.

After several other despatches on the state of the country and on the great want of putting the finances in order, Sir H. Bulwer sent, on the 4th July, 1860, some particulars of the revenue and expenditure of Turkey, as follows:—

The revenue amounts to about 10,500,000*l.*; the expenditure is about 11,000,000*l.* The deficit is 500,000*l.* In the expenditure is included interest on foreign debts secured on the Egyptian revenue, a portion of the customs duties of Smyrna and Syria, and customs of Constantinople, and an internal debt also secured on Constantinople customs, the whole amounting, with deductions already effected by sinking fund, to 14,860,000*l.* The deficit of 500,000*l.* above mentioned might be considered covered by the new tariff of valuation, and other small sources not counted; but, on

the other hand, 1,000,000*l.* has to be deducted from the revenue for five years to meet a vacuum created by persons having bargained for, and paid in anticipation, their taxes for that time. This 1,000,000*l.* must be found by a decrease on the side of expenditure and an increase on the side of revenue. Thus the whole consideration here is how to diminish present expenditure, and how to augment present revenue. It is in no wise extravagant to say that, by regularity and an efficient control, the present expenses might be diminished one-third, and the revenue increased as much by a proper system of perception.

To say nothing of the abuses in the way of speculation, everything that is bought for the army and navy is bought at a long and uncertain credit; and this alone would cause everything to be purchased at an extravagant price. A system of rations under which a contractor first bargains with the State to furnish so much in provisions, then bargains with the individuals who are to receive those provisions, and who often take a comparatively small sum of money instead, is an immense and useless loss to every party concerned, except the contractor.

In the same way the revenue is farmed for half its value; whilst the farmer squeezes out of the population a third more than he has purchased from the State. It is easy to see that a suitable reform in the administration would relieve the people and fill the public coffers. On both these points the Turkish Government has agreed. A commission of control is appointed, and a ministry of finance, on new principles, is promised. A sort of patent tax on retail traders is in contemplation, and might be levied, without the slightest pressure, on persons making immense profits. The projected change in the commercial treaties between France, ourselves, and this country, would also add considerably to the duties collected on imports, and to the general improvement and cultivation of the country.

The understanding that the mines and forests are, for the future, to be let to Europeans in their own name, and not in that of *rayahs*, will, doubtless, draw a great supply of foreign capital into Turkey, and add considerably to its natural progress and financial resources. Thus, on all these grounds, I repeat with confidence that it only depends on the Porte to raise its revenue by 5,000,000*l.* or 6,000,000*l.* sterling per annum.

We have now, however, to deal with present and pressing difficulties, and I shall proceed to state to your lordship what these are; premising, however, that my information (such is the confusion in the accounts) is probably not perfectly accurate as to the amount of each different debt there is to deal with, though, as to the total amount, there is, I should hope, no very great difference:—Loans made by merchants, 500,000*l.*; claims of various kinds, say 700,000*l.*; debts of war and navy departments, for which a paper called "*serghis*" has been given, 5,000,000*l.*; *scheins* or bonds, payable in August, interest 8 per cent., 750,000*l.*; *Hashneh Tahvils*, interest 6 per cent., payable in January, 2,350,000*l.*; lastly, advances made on assignments of the revenue, principally for the next few months, 2,500,000*l.*: total, 11,800,000*l.* The Treasury is empty, without it can count on 600,000*l.* or 700,000*l.*, which it is said to have prepared for the withdrawal of the remaining "*caimés*." The only way to deal with this state of things is, I think, boldly and openly finding resources applicable to the situation, and stating fairly what that situation is.

In the present confusion, and general distrust consequent on it, foreign capitalists can only be applied to in aid of efforts made by the Turks

themselves; and the Turkish Government is called upon to see resolutely what it can do by its own means.

It is from this point of view that I shall regard the present crisis:—

1. To deal with loans to merchants, claims, &c. A commission of respectable Europeans and Ottoman subjects might have assigned to them the public property for sale, with the power of creating a loan on it, if found convenient; Europeans being allowed to purchase such property.* A bureau should be established composed of Europeans and Ottomans who should examine all claims, and give to those recognized as valid an order on the said commission, which order should be received in payment of property if the holder wished to purchase, or should be paid to him as the public property is sold; or should be settled, if a loan is effected and there is money in hand, at once. There might, indeed, be various ways of managing this transaction; but the great thing is to have the guarantee, and to let people see their interests are to be taken care of, and that the Government is endeavouring to do all it can to accomplish that object. Another bureau should be charged with collecting debts due to the Porte, which should be paid to the commission charged with paying the debts of the Porte. The 5,000,000 serghis might be consolidated into a stock bearing interest of 7 or 8 per cent. As this is a fund in part created to pay the expenses and arrears of army and navy, the Sultan might resign (which would be an act both popular and useful) from his civil list a sum constituting the interest on this stock, and providing by a sinking fund for its extinction; and I think the Sultan would be disposed to make this sacrifice. Indeed, his Imperial Majesty would even then be left with a revenue of about 1,000,000£ sterling. The "scheins" and "hasneh tahvils" might be dealt with by being at once also consolidated into a debt bearing interest at 8 per cent. This interest, and the annihilation of the bonds in question, must be provided for by allowing any one having "vakouf"† property to acquire the privileges over it attached to "mulc" property, for say 100 years (after which it would return to the State) on the following conditions:—

Every person now paying 5 piastres should pay 20 piastres, $7\frac{1}{2}$ going to the "vakouf," and remaining unalienable with the property; the remaining $12\frac{1}{2}$ going to the State. All persons wishing to capitalize this last payment for the term of their lease, should be able to do so at a fixed standard value; and the Government should receive "scheins" and "hasneh tahvils" in acquittal thereof; by which measure the bonds in question would shortly be absorbed. Thus, the only remaining and most difficult point to deal with would be the assignations on the next four or five months' revenue, which renders government simply impossible. The Porte might frankly explain this, and make the best arrangements it could concerning it, either with the creditors to whom assignations have been given, or with persons who might lend money for four or five years, on the securities now held for sums which have to be paid in four or five months. I do not think this difficult, providing the other demands on the Turkish Government had previously been satisfied. In short, I do not think things desperate, if

* A mere Turkish commission would not satisfy as to the property being fairly dealt with; and the Government makes no objection to the employment of Europeans here.

† "Vakouf" property is that which passes from the proprietor's family when there is no direct descent, and "mulc" is that which he may dispose of as he thinks proper.

firmness, and energy, and elevation of character are shown by those at the head of the State; nevertheless, they are certainly most serious.

On the 25th August, 1860, Lord John Russell sent the following despatch to Sir H. Bulwer on the affairs of Damascus:—

It may be useful to you, and it is due to her Majesty's Government, as well as to the British nation, to explain to you the painful nature of the feelings of horror, resentment, and indignation which have been excited in this country by the atrocities lately committed in Syria.

From the time of the Treaty of Kainardji of 1774 to the Treaty of Paris of 1856, Turkey was fettered in her internal government by her engagements to Russia. By repeated treaties and conventions, by armed interference at one time, and specious protection at another, the Christians of the Turkish Empire were made the subjects of the Czar quite as much as of the Ottoman Porte. But a few efforts were wanting to break the last links which bound the people of the Principalities, Bulgaria, and Bosnia, to the Sultan, and make him either a vassal of Russia or an Asiatic Power.

At this time Great Britain and France interfered. The siege of Sebastopol and the provisions of the Treaty of Paris converted the exclusive protection of Christians by Russia into an engagement, general in its nature, respectful to the Sultan in its form, by which it was hoped the lives and properties of the Christian subjects of the Porte would be guaranteed, and their condition gradually improved.

It was therefore with a shock of amazement, as well as of horror, that the intelligence of the massacres of Hasbeyra, Zahlé, Deir-el-Kamar, and Damascus, was received in Great Britain. It was not that a barbarous Mahometan or Pagan tribe had murdered by wholesale other tribes with which they were at enmity; it was not the utter inhumanity which marked and deepened the shade of these murders; it was that Turkish pashas and beys, chosen by the Sultan to govern and protect his subjects, were evidently abettors and favourers of these massacres. Among these Kourshid Pasha was one of the most prominent. The troops commanded by him either looked on in apathy, or actually participated in the worst of these massacres. Fuad Pasha, sent on a special mission to inquire and to punish, proposed actually to leave this man in the administration of the government whose powers he perverted, and it was not till a British admiral interfered that he consented to deprive the pasha of his authority! Achmet Pasha at Damascus gave full sway to the dissolute mob which murdered and plundered Christians. Othman Bey, at Deir-el-Kamar, did still worse; he disarmed the Christians, and then admitted their murderers to slay the unarmed multitude.

When the news of these events, even in imperfect reports, reached this country, men naturally said, "The blood and treasure of Great Britain and France were poured out freely to maintain the independence of the Sultan. They asked no territory, no exclusive privileges in return; they asked only that the Christian subjects of the Porte might be treated with humanity, to the great advantage of the Sultan himself. An outbreak of fanatical Mahometans we could well understand. But this treachery, brutality, and cruelty, on the part of persons selected by the Sultan himself to govern his best provinces, shows either some deep design to exterminate the Christians, or an unheard-of degree of weakness and

apathy at Constantinople, or an amount of venality and corruption which it is difficult to credit."

You must not be surprised that such feelings should be excited, and such reflections made; nor would it be of any use to conceal from the Porte that either the whole system of Ottoman Government must be replaced by one founded on integrity and justice, or the Sultan must prepare himself for the abandonment of his cause by his best and most persevering allies.

On the 14th November, 1860, Sir H. Bulwer sent to Lord John Russell the following budget, which the Porte proposed to adopt for the year 1860, or 1276 and 1277 of the Egire.

RECETTES.

Désignation des Recettes.					Bourses	piast.
Impôts Directs:—						
Verghi (impôt personnel)	551,929	071
Rachat militaire	119,218	119
Impôts Indirects:—						
Dimes	710,752	362
Droit sur les moutons	165,452	471
Idem sur les porcs	20,904	473
Douanes	352,645	203
Idem des tabacs, y compris le droit de vente	56,455	218
Droit des pêches	17,234	397
Produits des contrats	4,701	424
Idem du timbre	6,227	120
Droits sur les spiritueux	74,381	374
Japon	28,849	408
Droits divers	203,662	476
Etablissements Publics:—						
Postes	12,535	236
Imprimerie Impériale	1,832	286
Immeubles appartenant à l'Etat	6,916	355
Produits Domaniaux et Droits Regaliens:—						
Pêcheries	4,005	013
Forêts	1,317	472
Fermes Impériales	15,621	245
Salines	21,384	175
Mines	2,287	309
Ventes des propriétés immobilières	1,010	0
Tributs:—						
Recettes fixes	93,574	0
Revenus Spéciaux du Ministère de la Marine	29,679	286
Idem du Commerce	1,554	62
Total Général des Recettes inscrites aux Budgets					2,504,136	155

Résumé en Bourses.

					Bourses	piast.
Recettes	2,504,136	155
Dépenses	2,570,066	355
Déficit					65,930	300

[227]

DÉPENSES.

Désignation des Dépenses.	Bourses	plast.
Dettes Etrangères:—		
Intérêts et amortissements des dettes contractées en Europe	184,461	135
Dettes Intérieures:—		
Esham Djedidié, intérêts et amortissements ...	40,000	0
Intérêts des Sehims, des Hasneh Tahvili, et des bons de 10 ans	93,675	490
Intérêts et annuités des Eshams, Moucatais, Timar, &c.	97,875	209
Intérêts d'un emprunt à la Caisse des Orphelins, et des dettes de la guerre transférées... ..	32,381	158
Subventions religieuses aux Provinces de Hedgas, &c.		
Yemen Surré (Group) envoyés à la Mecque, &c. .	100,479	089
Liste Civile:—		
Liste Civile et autres allocations y relatives ...	304,840	378
Pension, &c.:—		
Pensions et secours à des Fonctionnaires en retraite et à des nécessiteux	35,815	294
Ministres sans portefeuille, Tanzimat et Conseil de Justice	25,908	410
Services Généraux:—		
Ministère de la Guerre	982,773	263
Intendance de l'Artillerie	64,167	0
Ministère de la Marine	196,510	0
Ministère de la Justice	21,311	0
Allocations aux Vacoufs	37,963	466
Ministère de l'Intérieure	358,296	309
Ministère des Affaires Etrangères	32,437	379
Ministère du Commerce	14,449	332
Ministère de l'Instruction Publique	5,013	328
Ministère de Police	27,833	021
Ministère des Finances	211,961	094
Crédit omis dans le Budget du Ministère de Finances et destiné à la refonte du Beshlik et à la Subvention de l'union Financière, &c. ...	65,334	0
A déduire	2,933,489	355
L'abandon fait par la Liste Civile	85,716	
Les Réductions en masse notifiées au Conseil, &c. 277,707		
	363,423	0
Il resterait en Dépenses Ordinaires	2,570,066	355

Résumé en Francs.

	Francs.
Recettes	286,187,007
Dépenses	293,721,909
Déficit	7,534,902

TABLEAU DES DETTES DU TRÉSOR OTTOMAN.

Nature des Dettes.	Bourses.
Emprunts faits à Londres en 1854	660,000
" " en 1855	1,100,000
" " en 1858	1,100,000
Ehhami Djedidé	500,000
Sehim ou Ehhami Mumtazé	150,000
Hazne Tahvili	500,000
Emprunts pour le rétrait du Caymé	251,000
Idem pour diverses causes	472,321
Intérêts et Commissions des 2 Art.	104,864
Déficit de 1858 (1274 de l'Hégire)	278,604
" 1859 (1275 de l'Hégire)	447,083
Bons de 10 ans	847,800
Bons de la Guerre transférés au Trésor	190,000
Dettes du Ministère des Finances (dans la capitale et les provinces)	551,988
Bons de la Marine, transférés au Trésor	45,000
Calmés en circulation	210,000
	<hr/> 7,408,660

RECAPITULATION.

	Bourses.
Dettes Consolidées	3,360,000
Idem, à courtes échéances	1,732,800
Idem, sans renseignements satisfaisants	2,315,860
	<hr/> 4,048,660
	<hr/> 7,408,660
	Francs.
En francs à 175 paras le franc	384,000,000
" " { 198,034,285 }	462,704,000
" " { 264,669,715 }	
	<hr/> 846,704,000

Observation Générale.—Il est à remarquer que par les remboursements que se font les prêteurs sur les revenus qui leur sont donnés en garantie, comme par les emprunts sur place que continue de faire le Gouvernement, cette situation se modifie sans cesse sans qu'il soit possible de le suivre, ainsi qu'il est expliqué dans la note sur les travaux du Conseil. Tels sont cependant les renseignements les plus probables recueillis à différentes époques et que nous ne donnons que sous toutes réserves attendu qu'aucun document officiel ne nous en a garanti l'exactitude.

Il résulte de ce Tableau que la somme de 462,704,000 francs reste à liquider soit par une prorogation de consolidation, soit par un accroissement de ressources intérieures, soit par un emprunt.

On the 28th November, 1860, Sir H. Bulwer sent to Lord John Russell the report of the French and English Commissioners with respect to the state of Turkish finances, which included an examination of the finances of the empire, the preparation of new laws, and the suggestion of reforms, but the commissioners complained that they were unable to obtain the necessary information. In consequence of this difficulty, the commission was converted into a permanent financial court under the presidency of his Highness Mahmed Rushti Pasha. The information then received showed that the receipts amounted to 286,187,007 francs, and the expenses to 293,722,909 francs, leaving a deficit of 7,535,902 francs.

On the 16th April, 1861, Sir H. Bulwer sent a note to Lord John Russell, inclosing a copy of the financial project which the Porte had brought out, giving the terms of the new measure as follows:—

Article 1. Il sera émis des caïmés pour la somme de 1,250,000,000 de piastres; ces caïmés circuleront comme monnaie dans toute l'étendue de l'Empire Ottoman, et seront, sans aucune difficulté, reçus en paiement par toutes les administrations et caisses publiques, à l'exception des douanes.

Art. 2. Sur ce chiffre, 250,000,000 seront destinés à former les deux tiers du capital de 375,000,000 en monnaies de bon aloi, qui sera ainsi qu'il en est fait mention plus bas, affecté au maintien du change sur l'Europe, et le reste, soit un milliard, servira à retirer les caïmés actuellement en circulation, et à solder, d'après un mode économique, les dettes du Trésor provenant des arriérés de l'année 1276 et des années antérieures.

Art. 3. Afin de pouvoir effectuer l'émission à la fin du mois de Mars 1862, il sera procédé dès à présent à la confection des titres des 1,250,000,000 de caïmés dont le papier sera confectionné dans des fabriques spéciales de manière à en rendre la contrefaçon impossible. Ces titres, au fur et à mesure qu'ils auront été imprimés, seront consignés à la commission de remboursement dont il est fait mention plus loin, où ils seront numérotés et revêtus d'un timbre spécial. La totalité des caïmés devra être prête au mois de Mars; les opérations du maintien du change commenceront à partir de la fin du même mois.

Art. 4. Le capital de 375,000,000 de piastres en monnaie métallique, destiné au maintien du change, devant être disponible à la fin de Mars, 1862, il sera immédiatement tiré, au moyen de planches actuellement existantes, de caïmés pour la somme de 150,000,000 à valoir sur les 500,000,000 affectés à cet objet, en pièces de 100, de 50, et de 20 piastres. Ces caïmés, formant la somme de 150,000,000, porteront au dos une inscription indiquant que leur mise en circulation pourra être effectuée à partir seulement de la fin du mois de Mars, 1862, et seront dès à présent distribués aux populations de l'Empire, contre des monnaies d'or ou d'argent de bon aloi, à titre de prêt pour la période d'une année, à l'expiration de laquelle les porteurs auront la faculté de livrer ces titres à la circulation et d'en disposer à leur convenance. Dans le cas néanmoins où le public éprouverait trop de difficultés à se procurer la totalité de leur contre-valeur en monnaie de bon aloi, une partie de cette contre-valeur, égale au quart de chaque versement, pourra être reçue en bechlicks ou en altılıks. Une portion des 225,000,000 qui doit parfaire le capital, sera, jusqu'à concurrence de 100,000,000, convertie par les fonds du Trésor, contre lesquels seront délivrés des caïmés de pareille somme, pris sur ceux qui seront émis pour cette destination. Le solde sera réalisé au moyen des produits des forêts, des mines et des propriétés appartenant à l'Etat; ces produits seront confiés à la commission de remboursement dont il est fait mention ci-après. Le bois de construction provenant de forêts, ainsi que les propriétés de l'Etat, seront vendus conformément aux lois de l'Empire, et les mines seront données à ferme à des compagnies particulières.

Art. 5. L'émission des nouveaux caïmés ne devant avoir lieu qu'en Mars, 1862, il sera émis à titre provisoire jusqu'à cette époque une somme mensuelle de 30,000,000 de caïmés, destinée à faire face aux besoins les plus pressants du Ministère des Finances. Ces caïmés, tirés au moyen des planches existantes, circuleront comme par le passé exclusivement à Con-

stantinople, et serviront au paiement des dépenses les plus urgentes de l'Etat.

Art. 6. Il sera, dès à présent, institué une banque de change, placée sous la direction d'un gouverneur nommé par le Gouvernement Impérial, et dont le directeur, et autres fonctionnaires, seront choisis parmi les personnes possédant toute la capacité requise. La banque sera en compte-courant avec le Ministère des Finances, qui fera opérer contre reçus le versement du capital réalisé au fur et à mesure des rentrées. Le rôle principal de la banque, pendant toute la durée de la circulation des caïmés, consistera, au moyen de ce capital, à vendre des lettres de change sur l'Europe contre caïmés; à acheter des lettres de change présentant des garanties de solidité. Le détail de ses attributions sera déterminé par un règlement spécial. La moindre somme faisant partie du capital de la banque ne pourra être détournée de sa destination, et en cas de contravention le Gouverneur et les directeurs en seront collectivement responsables.

Art. 7. Le maintien du change commencera à la fin de Mars, 1862, simultanément avec la mise en circulation des nouveaux caïmés, dont la totalité devra être disponible à cette époque. Une quantité suffisante de nouveaux caïmés sera expédiée dans les provinces à l'effet de retirer, pour les faire venir à Constantinople, les anciens caïmés émis en remboursement de l'emprunt et qui auront déjà été mis en circulation. Ces caïmés, ainsi que ceux existant actuellement dans la capitale ou qui auront été émis pour faire face aux dépenses courantes, seront aussi échangés contre les nouveaux et retirés. Toutes les avances du Ministère des Finances à valoir sur le capital de la banque seront remboursées en nouveaux caïmés faisant partie de ce capital. Quant à l'émission du solde des nouveaux caïmés, elle aura lieu graduellement au fur et à mesure des besoins véritables. La circulation des nouveaux caïmés s'étendra à toutes les provinces de l'empire à l'exception du Djiddé et du Yemen. Aucune autre espèce de papier-monnaie ne pourra exister dans toute l'étendue de l'empire.

Art. 8. Tant qu'on n'aura pas assuré les moyens d'élever le chiffre des exportations pour le moins au niveau des importations, le maintien du change sera insuffisant pour fixer invariablement le cours des pièces d'or au taux normal et pour parvenir ainsi à préserver de toute atteinte la richesse du pays. L'adoption d'une pareille mesure ne pourrait donc avoir lieu qu'à titre provisoire jusqu'à la réalisation de ces moyens dont les principaux consistent à obtenir d'une part un accroissement des produits de l'Empire, et de l'autre, à construire les routes, canaux, &c., qui doivent en faciliter le transport. A cet effet, il sera émis dans une période de cinq ans, à raison de 20,000,000 par année, une somme de caïmés spécialement destinée à être employée aux travaux d'utilité publique.

Art. 9. Une somme de 75,000,000 de piastres, prise sur les garanties de l'emprunt contracté en dernier lieu en Europe, et dont le contrat vient d'être révisé, est affectée au remboursement graduel des nouveaux caïmés. Ces fonds seront consacrés chaque année au retrait de ces caïmés jusqu'à concurrence d'une somme égale. De cette manière, les 1,250,000,000 ci-dessus indiqués, ainsi que les 100,000,000 qui seront pris dans l'espace de cinq ans pour être employés à la construction des voies de communication, auront été complètement retirés et annulés pendant la dix-huitième année. En évaluant à une moyenne annuelle de 10,000,000 de piastres le chiffre des dépenses ordinaires de l'administration du change et les pertes

qui en résulteraient pour elle de cette opération, le capital de 375,000,000 destiné à soutenir le change se trouvera diminué de 150,000,000 à la fin de la quatorzième année. Le capital réduit à 225,000,000 servira à échanger chaque année, à partir de la quinzième, une somme de 100,000,000 de piastres en monnaies altérées, et l'on aura ainsi assuré, à la fin de la dix-huitième année, le retrait complet des caïmés en circulation, en même temps que celui des bechlicks, et atilikis, leurs subdivisions.

Art. 10. Sous la dénomination de "Commission de Remboursement des Caïmés," il sera institué dès à présent un comité permanent, formé de sujets Ottomans et étrangers. Le président et les membres de cette commission seront inamovibles, et ne pourront être remplacés qu'en cas de démissions ou délit. Cette commission sera chargée des attributions suivantes :—1. Elle soumettra à son contrôle les nouveaux caïmés, qu'elle devra numérotter et revêtir d'un cachet spécial, et elle en fera faire l'enregistrement ; les caïmés non revêtus du cachet de la commission ne peuvent pas avoir cours. 2. Tous les caïmés émis en remplacement de ceux usés par la circulation devront, chaque fois que le renouvellement aura été reconnu nécessaire, passer comme la première fois par le contrôle de la commission, qui sera tenu de les numérotter et cacheter. 3. Il sera mis à sa disposition chaque année jusqu'à la fin de l'opération la somme de 75,000,000 de piastres faisant partie des revenus désignés et affectés au remboursement des caïmés ; au moyens de ces fonds, elle retirera annuellement, jusqu'à due concurrence des caïmés qu'elle transmettra au Ministère des Finances après les avoir annulés ; elle rédigera chaque année un tableau indiquant les numéros des caïmés annulés, et un exemplaire imprimé de ce tableau sera envoyé par elle à chacun des vérificateurs dont il est fait mention ci-après. 4. Chaque année, à partir de la douzième, elle se fera remettre par la banque du change les 50,000,000 qui aux termes de l'Article 9 devront être distraits du capital de celle-ci. Au moyen de ces fonds elle retirera annuellement des monnaies de mauvais aloi pour une somme égale. 5. Elle conservera en dépôt dans ses caisses les 100,000,000 caïmés destinés aux routes, ports et canaux ; sur cette somme elle versera contre reçus 20,000,000 chaque année directement entre les mains de l'administration chargée de ces travaux. Ces reçus seront transmis par elle au Ministère des Finances. 6. Elle sera chargée de vendre, conformément aux lois de l'Empire, les propriétés disponibles appartenant à l'Etat ; de donner à terme les mines et les forêts aux compagnies concessionnaires et d'en verser les produits à la banque, qui devra ajouter ces fonds au capital affecté au maintien du change. 7. Enfin elle examinera les dettes susceptibles d'être consolidées, et prendre à cet égard les dispositions nécessaires.

Art. 11. Dans chaque ville principale il sera désigné un vérificateur chargé d'examiner les caïmés faux qui auraient pu se glisser parmi ceux en circulation dans les provinces, et d'éclaircir les doutes des porteurs qui se présenteraient à lui. Ces vérificateurs, choisis parmi les personnes connues par leur capacité et probité, recevront des émoluments suffisants.

SEWAGE OF TOWNS.

Second Report of the Commission appointed to inquire into the best mode of distributing the Sewage of Towns, and applying it to beneficial and profitable uses.

THE basin of the river Mersey, or the district of which Manchester is the centre, was the first selected for inspection, as it appeared to offer the worst example of pollution of its waters. The Irwell, the Irk, and the Medlock at Manchester, have long been notorious for offensiveness both to sense of sight and smell. The principal rivers besides these which flow directly or indirectly into the Mersey, are the Tonge, the Roach, the Tame, the Etherow, the Goyt, and the Bollin. There are, in addition, various considerable streams, of which the Croal, Bradshaw Brook, Sinderland Brook, Glaze Brook, and the Sankey Brook are among the chief. The drainage area of these rivers and streams comprises about 1,000 square miles. The river Weaver, which falls into the mouth of the Mersey on the south, is not taken into account.

It was considered desirable to examine the principal rivers and streams from near their sources downwards, and to visit the several towns on their banks, in order to determine, as far as possible, the locality, the nature, and the degree of pollution to which the waters of each river were subjected. We were fully aware that in one respect the pollution of the rivers of the district was of an exceptional character, that visibly they were more affected, probably, than any in the country, by colouring matter discharged from dyeing, printing, and other works which everywhere abound. We discovered, however, in the course of our inquiries that the district was somewhat exceptional in a still more important respect, namely, that, bad as these rivers are, there is, probably, in proportion to the population, a less amount of faecal refuse discharged into them than from any other large towns throughout the country. That is to say, that the solid faecal matter of the inhabitants is still retained amidst their dwellings instead of being discharged into the sewers. The mass of the people are denied the comfort and advantage of water-closets, and, in spite of all medical evidence of the perniciousness of the cesspool and middenstead systems, it seems probable that these will be maintained in this district longer than in any other, for even in those towns in which a complete system of sewers has been laid down, the noxious middenstead, pent up in confined yards and courts, remains as the rule.

If one of the two evils were unavoidable, it would be better that the rivers should be polluted than that the atmosphere in which we live should be subject to constant deterioration; but this is not really the question. Both evils may be avoided, but it is strikingly shown in this district that, notwithstanding the purity of the air of the town is sacrificed by a retention of its faecal matter, the rivers at the same time so polluted by the discharge of town refuse of various kinds as to call imperatively for remedial measures.

The pollution of some of the rivers and streams commences at a short distance from their sources. This is especially the case with the Irwell, which is quite darkened with dye before it reaches Rawtenstall. The bright stream above Middleton is made black and repulsive immediately below the town. The bright water of the Bradshaw brook and reservoir

soon becomes the colour of ink. The Roch derives its pollution from various drains and sewers, which are seen to pour their foul contents into it as it passes through the town of Rochdale. The smaller towns and villages add perceptibly their contamination, but the discharge from some of the large towns must, in the summer time, be a very dangerous nuisance.

The river Croal, as it passes through Bolton, is in part covered over, but for a considerable length it is nothing better than a disgusting open sewer. The Tonge here also becomes much deteriorated by refuse from a populous district, and from numbers of dyeing and other works. The river Tame is early affected by town and manufacturing refuse, but it receives its greatest pollution from the populous neighbourhood of Staleybridge and Ashton, where it becomes very foul. The Tame joins the Mersey at Stockport, and below this town the water of the Mersey has become a black offensive liquid. The course of the river is here naturally through very picturesque and pleasing scenery, with a walk along the bank, which would be a great attraction, were not the effect completely destroyed by the foul condition of the river, and by the dense cloud of smoke with which the place is usually overshadowed. The Bollin becomes very foul in its passage through the town of Macclesfield, a state of things which the local board desire to remedy as soon as practicable. Great attention has been paid in this town to sanitary improvement, and, as an exception to the general rule of the district, it is proposed to abolish cesspools and middensteads, and to establish water-closets as soon as an intercepting line of drainage can be carried out.

From Bury, Oldham, and other towns of importance, there is also discharge of much offensive matter, but the continuous lines of houses and factories for miles above Manchester, add much to the foul matters of the Irwell especially, which receives its acme of pollution from Manchester itself. The Irk, which joins its black offensive stream to the Irwell in Manchester, is equally disgusting; but no description can give an adequate idea of the fluid of the Medlock, where, having passed through Manchester, it forms the head of the Bridgewater Canal. At the time of our visit a black, thick, noisome scum covered the surface of the river and canal, and bubbles of gas constantly burst up from below, although the weather was very cold. In summer this scum on the surface is said to be much extended, and at times of such consistency that birds walk over it. The stench is described as scarcely endurable.

The grievous condition of these rivers, however, does not arise solely from offensive and waste matters discharged into them in a state of suspension or solution in water. General ill-usage and neglect appear to reign. Solid refuse is thrown in from works and factories. Cinder heaps are accumulated on the banks. Rubbish appears to be shot *ad libitum*, and large stones, old kettles, and obstructions of all kinds are seen to crowd the beds, more or less, of the shallower streams. The Mersey and Tame at Stockport, the Croal at Bolton, the Bollin at Macclesfield, the Medlock at Manchester, and the Irwell at various places, are open to some or other of these complaints. In addition to inquiries in the Mersey district, extending, as we have said, over an area of about 1,000 square miles, examinations were directed to be made of some of the rivers of the Midland and Yorkshire districts, where there are large populations. These comprised the river Derwent at Derby, the river Tame from Wolverhampton to below Birmingham, the river Aire from Bradford through Leeds to its junction

with the Calder, the Calder at Wakefield and Castleford, and the river Don at Sheffield, Rotherham, and Doncaster.

These rivers were visited at various points on several occasions, and the vast amount of pollution which their waters received was very fully observed.

In the course of these visits there was striking evidence afforded of the erroneous conclusions which might be drawn, as to the real state of some of the rivers, from a single examination at any particular period. For instance, the river Tame (Warwickshire), at all times in so disgusting a state at and below Birmingham, may be found above the town, during fine dry cold weather, tolerably clear, to the eye at least, and yet the districts of Wednesbury, Walsall, Tipton, West Bromwich, Christchurch, Oldbury, and Smethwick, comprising a vast population, with many coal mines, gas works, and chemical works, drain into the river Tame above the town of Birmingham.

Some years ago it was stated to receive the drainage of a quarter of a million population above Birmingham, and this number must now be very considerably augmented. It must be borne in mind that these increasing districts have not yet received that attention as to drainage which cannot fail to force itself upon them before long, and yet the foul matter which is seen to be discharged into the various tributaries, for some miles above Birmingham, must form an immense amount in the aggregate even now; and although at certain periods the suspended matters become deposited along the course of the streams, the amount of pollution carried forward during times of rain is all the greater. The water of this river, the Tame, is admitted to be at all times most objectionable in its character, but the quantity of sediment brought down when the volume of water is increased by rain must be enormous. The water supply of Birmingham was derived from this river; its deleterious condition has long been a source of anxious consideration. Upon this serious question, of the vast amount of deposit which takes place in the beds of the rivers themselves, we may refer to all the rivers which have come under observation.

The river Aire, above the junction of the Calder, receives, besides that of other places, the drainage of Bradford and of Leeds, comprising a population of about one-third of a million. The drainage of Bradford falls into a beck, from which the Bradford Canal is chiefly fed, and forms one of the foulest specimens of water that has yet been witnessed. At Shipley, where this stream falls into the Aire, it is described as one of the most abominable nuisances any town was ever subject to; and this notwithstanding that Bradford is not yet sewered on any general or systematic plan. Above Leeds, about fifteen miles below Shipley, the Aire is described as generally discoloured. This was decidedly the case at the periods of our visit, but a large proportion of the solid matter had, before reaching this, become deposited, the offensiveness of which, when stirred up and carried forward again by rain, is very great.

Similar contamination occurs above Castleford, at the junction of the Aire with the Calder, ten miles below Leeds. Thick and muddy as the river usually is at Castleford, and foul to taste and smell, a large proportion of the solid matter of the drainage of Leeds has become deposited before it reaches Castleford, and the appearance of the river in dry weather is consequently much improved. In times of flood, however, an immense amount of foul black matter is brought down and deposited on the banks near

Castleford. An accumulation, four feet thick, had recently been left near the town. This foul deposit is complained of as very offensive, and highly injurious to health. When the water is low in summer, the exposed bed of the river is said to give off foul emanations; and in times of flood the water itself is offensive; and yet the inhabitants of Castleford are compelled to use this water, both for manufacturing and for domestic purposes.

In the Calder, which receives the drainage of Halifax, Huddersfield, Dewsbury, and Wakefield, similar deposits take place, and similar inconveniences arise. In the Don, also, the chief proportion of the solid matters of the drainage of Sheffield, in dry weather, becomes deposited before that river reaches Doncaster, some eighteen miles below, and these offensive accumulations are stirred and carried onwards by the next rain.

The same observation was made on examination of the rivers of the Mersey basin. With the ordinary dry weather flow a large proportion of the solid matters drained from the towns appears to be soon deposited in the beds of the rivers; but in periods of rain, the foul mud is again lifted and carried forward to the populations below. These rivers, for the most part, rise to considerable heights during flood, and the amount of foul matter then brought down is shown by black lines of demarcation left along the banks of the rivers several feet above their ordinary level.

The improvement in the appearance of the water thus occasioned is especially observable in the Irwell and Mersey some miles below Manchester, where the district becomes thinly populated. At Partington Lock, about ten miles below Manchester, the appearance of the river was found to be considerably improved, although perceptible smell still arose from it. Even at Warrington, some twenty miles below Manchester, the river is described as dirty, and it is stated that if it were not for the occasional effect of heavy rains it would be very objectionable.

In our previous report we adverted to the natural agents which are at work, tending to diminish the quantity of offensive matters discharged into our rivers and streams, as the influence of air, aquatic vegetation, and fish, where these can live. It has been urged that such influences are usually sufficient to destroy the noxious properties of sewage within a very short distance of the place of discharge. That such influences do operate, in a minor degree, is not to be doubted, but our examinations lead us to the conclusion that the main cause of the improvement which is frequently found in the apparent state of the rivers, at a comparatively short distance below the towns drained into them, arises from deposit of solid matters of sewage in the beds of the rivers themselves.

The solid is by far the most offensive part of sewage. Its noxiousness is not removed by deposit in rivers and streams. The evil is still there, constantly being renewed. On each occasion of exposure, during drought, this solid matter again decomposes. On each occasion of disturbance, during flood, it again pollutes the waters. In either case it sends forth its poisonous effluvia amidst the populations which are near and even many miles distant on the course of the river so tainted.

There is another serious evil to be apprehended from this constant discharge of foul solid matter into the rivers and streams, which appears hitherto to have received no attention whatever, and that is the tendency to permanently raise the beds, gradually to destroy the scouring power of the water, and partially to silt the rivers up. It would require some considerable observations to ascertain to what extent these results have been actually

produced, but it must be kept in mind that systematic town sewerage is only in its infancy, and that the deterioration of our rivers, although displaying itself already very seriously, will, without doubt, rapidly increase, unless general measures are taken for its prevention. With regard to the Mersey, there is said to be evidence already that the bed is raised, that the deposit has *permanently* much increased. The returns from the canal and navigation companies, although imperfect, and not directed to this special point of inquiry, throw some light upon it, and show the general increase of the evil. At Bath the discharge of sewage into the river Avon is said to have so increased of late years, as to impede the navigation. The drainage of Melton Mowbray is said to be gradually choking up the canal. With respect to the river Don navigation, it is said that the quantity of stuff sent in by the drainage of Sheffield makes a material difference in the necessity of cleansing operations in the river, and the drainage of Glasgow is stated to produce deposits in the harbour of the Clyde at the rate of 100,000 cubic yards yearly, and to entail an expenditure of 8,000*l.* per annum for its removal.

At Birmingham the amount of solid deposit now intercepted at the outfall works is at the rate of about 25,000 tons per annum. As much as 2,500 tons have been found to be brought down during one week in time of heavy rain. The streams flowing through Birmingham are said to have permanently silted up their beds some four feet high, and serious damage to land and property by flooding is the result.

It was obvious, from the condition of several other rivers which we had the opportunity of examining, that permanent raising of the beds must more or less be going on. The state of the Bollin at Macclesfield was such that the local board lately took upon themselves to clear out the bed of the river where it passes through the town. They had no authority whatever to do so, but as the cleansing was of benefit to the neighbouring properties, they were not interfered with. If the local board had proper powers, they would be able to keep the river permanently clear, and to form an agreeable and ornamental feature of what is now a nuisance and eyesore to the town.

All our examinations lead to the conclusion that if the discharge of solid matters of sewage and other refuse into rivers is prevented, the chief part of the inconvenience, which is now rapidly rising to the proportion of a national evil, would at once be arrested. That this can be easily and fully accomplished within reasonable limits of expenditure, we expressed our opinion in our former report, and we shall have again to allude to the fact further on; but we have now to urge, as the first and all-important step towards securing this object and the permanent improvement and protection of the rivers of the country, that a general local jurisdiction and conservancy be created throughout the kingdom, with adequate powers and proper guarantees for their due administration. If such general jurisdiction existed, the condition of the rivers and watercourses of the country would, no doubt, soon be very different. It would seem to be the greatest anomaly possible, that in a country in which the laws and institutions have advanced to such perfection, in which even every road and bridge is under special care and supervision, so important an object as the preservation of its waters should still remain without any general government and control.

With regard to the influence which polluted rivers exert against the health and comfort of neighbouring populations, two questions claim atten-

tion:—(1) What is the influence of the atmosphere of such polluted waters? and (2) what is the deterioration of the water for domestic and other useful purposes?

As regards the first point, the conclusion to which we have come on the present branch of inquiry is as follows:—that rivers, and, in a still higher degree, bodies of stagnant, or almost stagnant, water, much polluted by sewage, are common nuisances to persons dwelling in their neighbourhood, nuisances more or less intense as the quantity of pollution varies; and that, wherever such nuisance exists, an influence tending to depress bodily health is also exerted by the effluvia.

As regards the second point—the deterioration of water for domestic and other useful purposes—the pollution of rivers is an evil of immense magnitude. In extreme cases, the water is unfit for any kind of use; but long before this degree of foulness is reached, the water has been unfit for purposes of cleanliness; and from a very much earlier stage of contamination had been utterly unfit for drinking. The last-mentioned evil deserves very particular attention; for the danger to health occasioned by the consumption of polluted water is, in our opinion, infinitely greater than any danger which the effluvia of polluted water can occasion. Water tainted but very slightly with sewage may determine terrible outbreaks of disease among the populations which drink of it; and although in such cases as that of Manchester (where water is grossly and offensively foul) there is little chance that people will drink that water, yet in cases of less obvious contamination, tainted water is perhaps extensively drunk. Such water, supplied by water companies, has in various cases been suspected, or proved, to have determined, on a very large scale, the distribution of cholera-deaths during times of epidemic visitation,—as in our South London districts during the two last epidemics of cholera; at other times it has probably exerted equal influence here in determining the distribution of deaths from ordinary diarrhoeal diseases; and on various occasions it has been shown that what to the common eye is an unappreciable pollution of water by sewage, may yet imply very serious dangers of infection for the persons who consume such water. On these grounds, seeing that brooks and rivers are almost universally the sources from which water-companies derive their supplies for large urban populations, we deem it to be of essential importance to the public health that the running-waters of the country should be strictly protected from pollution.

The commissioners then described the different methods that have been proposed for the purification of sewage, such as the lime process, the use of alumina, the superphosphate of magnesia, the sulphate of lime and magnesia in conjunction, and the metallic, as persalts of iron, which the commissioners considered the best. But the commissioners continued:—

Whilst we believe that the compounds of peroxide of iron are the best means at present known for the purification of sewage, we must repeat that no rigid rule can be laid down for the treatment to be adopted in all instances. Each case must be dealt with on its own merits. Whether the sewage of a town should be applied direct to land, or whether its grosser particles should be separated before such an application is made; whether, consistently with the health of populations, it can be sufficiently purified with a less costly material, or absolutely requires the employment of the more expensive means: each of these questions can be decided only by a consideration of individual necessities, circumstances, and opportunities.

It would seem as unwise to impose any general rule as to leave the matter wholly without attempting any remedy. It is for "the authorities" who are charged with the great interests involved in the disposal of sewage in their respective localities to decide upon the necessary measures of amelioration in their own particular cases.

The commissioners then proceeded to give the experience of all the towns where the sewage has been employed for useful purposes, and concluded their report as follows:—

We submit the following conclusions as the result of these our further investigations:—

1. That the pollution of the rivers of the country is so great and general as to have become a national evil.

2. That this pollution has progressively increased in recent years, is still rapidly increasing, and, unless arrested, must necessarily continue to do so in proportion to the increase of population, the progress of house-drainage, and the extension of manufactures.

3. That although one of the chief causes of this pollution is the practice of discharging sewage as it comes from towns into the nearest rivers or watercourses, thus converting them into sewers, yet the pollution from this cause is by no means confined to towns which have adopted systematic measures for improved sewerage. Nor is the amount of pollution in proportion exclusively to the completeness of such works; for, in many of the towns in which the bulk of the foul refuse is still retained in cesspools and middens, the neighbouring rivers are in a highly offensive and noxious condition, even where the cesspool system is maintained on the alleged ground of preserving the local rivers from contamination.

4. That besides the pollution of rivers by the discharge of sewage into them, they are in general made the common and ready receptacles of an immense amount of offensive matter from factories, dye-works, gasworks, iron foundries, mills, and other establishments, while cinder-heaps and masses of rubbish of every description that cover their banks, and the large stones and other refuse that obstruct the beds, testify to the general neglect and ill-usage of rivers.

5. That by far the greater part of the solid matter which is held in suspension in water is readily deposited in rivers, covering the banks with mud, permanently raising the beds, gradually destroying the scouring power of the water, and partially silting such rivers up, and that in some instances these deposits have accumulated to such an extent as to impede navigation, to render the surrounding country subject to floods, and to entail a vast expense in periodic cleansing.

6. That however the appearance of the water may be improved, after these deposits have taken place, yet the deposited matters, lying in the bed of the current, are under conditions favourable for putrefaction. And when the foul mud is disturbed by the prevalence of rain and during floods, it sends forth its effluvia amidst the populations which are near, and even in the course of the rivers far distant.

7. That this condition of rivers is a public and national nuisance: it interferes with the convenience and comfort of all classes of the people; it damages various and important interests, as those connected with manufacturing establishments, canals, fisheries, and so on; it deteriorates property to a large extent, and, as interfering with a main source of water supply, is of serious importance to the public health.

8. That this state of things has grown up in consequence of the anomaly that while important powers of river conservancy have from time immemorial been conferred on local authorities; while special powers have been vested in improvement commissioners and companies for isolated local improvement, for drainage, for navigation, and so on; and while even private water-rights and ownerships in streams have been recognized and conferred, no general jurisdiction whatever has been exercised over the whole waters of the country; no protection has been accorded to the many great and varied interests connected with rivers.

9. That the only radical way of restoring the rivers to their original purity is to prevent the discharge of foul matters into them, and especially the discharge of sewage and other refuse of large towns; but that in various cases where this radical treatment has been deemed inadmissible, expedients for the purpose of depriving the sewage of its offensive and noxious properties have been brought into practical operation, and have been attended with more or less success.

10. That among those methods, of which experience is most satisfactory, no one is suited to the circumstances of all towns, some towns presenting much greater difficulties than others; yet the more this subject has been investigated the more convincing is the evidence that there is no town which might not, with reasonable care and at moderate cost, greatly mitigate the existing evils where it may not be practicable wholly to remove them.

11. That, for example, the chief part of the nuisance arising from the discharge of sewage into rivers and streams, may be obviated by simply arresting the solid matter in suspension in the liquid, particularly in towns of small populations where the sewers discharge into considerable streams of water. In these cases it may be practically sufficient to adopt simple means of deposit combined with mechanical appliances for arresting the solid matter, and these may be of the most inexpensive character; in other cases, however, and especially during summer, the addition of chemical agents may be required for the more complete separation of the solid and the deodorizing of the liquid sewage. But although, by such means as the above, sewage may be rendered inoffensive to smell, we cannot guarantee that, even after the best practicable application of such means, sewage can be allowed to flow into brooks or rivers without rendering the water unsafe and improper for drinking.

12. That among deodorizers, the material which up to the present time has been found to be the best for this purpose, is perchloride of iron, the only objection to its general use being its comparatively high price, but in many cases the employment of the cheaper material, lime, may suffice.

13. That the value of the solid portions of sewage being small, all attempts at realizing profits from its preparation as manure have signally failed, but mixed with sweepings and other dry refuse of towns, a ready sale is found for it at 2s. or 3s. per ton, which is sufficient to pay a large proportion of the necessary working expenses for preventing nuisance.

14. That the cost of the operation has in various instances ranged from $\frac{1}{2}$ d. to 3d. per head of the population per annum, including interest on the outlay for works; there can therefore be no difficulty on the ground of expense in requiring the adoption of adequate means for a removal of nuisance in every case in which injury or inconvenience is shown to arise.

15. That the most beneficial and most profitable method of disposing

of sewage, where circumstances will admit of this use of it, is by direct application in the liquid form to land; where such applications can only be conveniently effected near habitations, it may be desirable to employ some deodorizing agent, but usually, if proper arrangements are made for conveying sewage on to the land, this expense need not be incurred.

There is reason to hope that trials and experiments instituted by the commission, and still in progress, in relation to the irrigation of land with sewage, will remove some doubts and difficulties which have hitherto prevailed in retarding a more general adoption of this desirable mode of disposing of and utilizing the sewage of towns.

Having now fully stated our conclusions as to the means of disposing of the sewage of towns, and shown that the remedies for the evils which are experienced, although various, are both practicable and economical, we beg to repeat our conviction that the only security for a general and continued employment of such means will be the establishment of responsible conservancies throughout the country, armed with adequate powers for preventing damage and for effecting improvements. We believe that these powers would be best vested in independent local authorities, such as the present commissions of sewers, acting under certain Government regulations in respect to borrowing money and other matters. Our inquiry, however, has of necessity been of too imperfect a character to enable us to set forth for consideration any decided measures in detail on so large and important a question. There are many subjects to be inquired into, vast interests to be considered, which are beyond our present power or our province to enter upon. We can only respectfully but earnestly recommend that such inquiries should be instituted into the various points bearing on the subject, so that measures may be submitted which will enable Parliament to deal with the existing evils in a way most conducive to public interests.

The report was signed by the Earl of ESSEX, Mr. HENRY KER SEYMER, Mr. ROBERT RAWLINSON, J. THOMAS WAY, Mr. J. B. LAWES, Dr. T. SOUTHWOOD SMITH, Dr. JOHN SIMON, and HENRY AUSTIN.

LUNACY.

Third Annual Report of the General Board of Commissioners in Lunacy for Scotland.

WE have again to note a considerable increase in the number of pauper lunatics. On 1st January, 1858, they were returned to us as amounting to 4,737; on 1st January, 1859, to 4,980; and on 1st January, 1860, to 5,226. There was thus an increase of 243 in 1858, and of 246 in 1859. The distribution of the insane in Scotland, on 1st January, 1860, was as follows:—In public and district asylums there were 2,632 patients, being an increase, since 1st January, 1859, of 136. Of these patients, 1,355 were males, and 1,277 females; 773 were supported by private funds, and 1,859 by parochial rates. At 1st January, 1859, the numbers supported by private funds and parochial rates were respectively 809 and 1,687. It thus appears that during 1859 a decrease of 36 had taken place in the number of private patients, and an increase of 172 in that of paupers.

[241]

The number of patients in private asylums or licensed houses amounted to 852, being an increase of 31 in 1859. Of these patients, 349 were males, and 503 females; 196 were supported by private funds, and 656 by parochial rates. On 1st January, 1859, the numbers supported by private funds and parochial rates were respectively 200 and 621. It thus appears that during 1859 a decrease of 4 had taken place in the number of private patients, and an increase of 35 in that of paupers. The insane in poor-houses amounted to 866, being an increase of 69 during the year. Of these patients, 349 were males, and 517 females; all of whom, with the exception of 2 females, were maintained by their parishes. The pauper lunatics placed as single patients amounted to 1,847, being a decrease of 30 since the returns of the previous year. These patients, comprising 828 males and 1,019 females, were disposed of in the following manner:—682 males and 750 females were living with relatives, 134 males and 220 females were placed with strangers, and 12 males and 49 females were living alone.

As stated in our former reports, we have no reliable means of ascertaining the number of private patients living singly; but, in the course of our investigations, we became cognizant of the existence of 1,887—comprising 1,041 males, and 846 females. Although we had reason to think that these numbers were considerably within the reality, we adopted them in our second report, and we continue them in the estimates of this year, as we are without the means of determining the changes which have occurred from the addition of new cases, or the subtraction of old ones by recovery or death. A considerable number of these patients are known to us to be resident with strangers; but the statutory provision requiring the sheriff's order for their reception, has, nevertheless, been complied with in the cases of only 11 males and 13 females. We have, however, refrained from taking any steps for enforcing this requirement in any case, owing to the uncertain meaning of the statutory definition of lunacy.

It appears from the returns made to us by superintendents of asylums and governors of poorhouses, that 372 patients were discharged not recovered from asylums in 1859. Of these, 293 were private patients, and 79 paupers; but of the paupers, 72 were on their discharge removed from the poor-roll, and transferred to the category of private patients. There were thus altogether 365 insane persons removed from asylums in 1859, regarding whose after-disposal we are without the means of obtaining information. Some were doubtless transferred to other asylums, but we have reason to think that by far the greater number were taken home, or were boarded in private houses. We have, however, received no notice of the sheriff's order having been granted during the year for any single private patient on removal from an asylum.

The total number of the insane in Scotland on 1st January, 1860, including the private patients as approximately estimated, amounted to 8,084, distributed as follows:—In public asylums, 2,632; in private asylums, 852; in poorhouses, 866; and in private houses, 3,734.

Of the 8,084 insane persons in Scotland, 2,858 were supported by private funds, and 5,226 by parochial rates. On 1st January, 1859, the corresponding numbers were 2,898 and 4,980. The increase in the numbers of the insane thus appears to be restricted to pauper lunatics. It is found, however, in all the different classes of establishments; in public and district asylums, in private asylums, and in lunatic wards of poorhouses. On the

other hand, the number of private patients has diminished. This result is probably in great measure due to the transfer of a number of the indigent insane from the class of private patients to that of paupers.

The average daily cost of maintenance of pauper lunatics in public asylums throughout Scotland is 1*s.* 3*d.*; and as follows in the individual counties possessing public asylums:—In Dumfriesshire, 11½*d.*; Edinburghshire, 1*s.* 3½*d.*; Forfarshire, 1*s.* 1½*d.*; Lanarkshire, 1*s.* 4½*d.*; Perthshire, 1*s.* 1½*d.*; Elginshire, 11½*d.* On the other hand, the average daily rate in the Renfrewshire poorhouses is 1*s.* 4*d.* Further, the average daily rate of maintenance of the whole of the pauper lunatics, wherever placed, is 9*d.* in Dumfriesshire; 11½*d.* in Edinburghshire; 1*s.* in Forfarshire; 1*s.* 0½*d.* in Lanarkshire; 11½*d.* in Perthshire; and 9½*d.* in Elginshire. Whereas in Renfrewshire it is 1*s.* 0½*d.*

The average daily expenditure for each pauper lunatic is 10½*d.* for the whole of Scotland, but it varies greatly in different districts; being, for instance, in Dumbartonshire double what it is in the counties of Sutherland and Caithness. The following table shows the average daily alimentary allowance in the several counties, which are arranged according to the amount of allowance:—Dumbarton, 1*s.* 2*d.*; Peebles, 1*s.* 1*d.*; Renfrew, 1*s.* 0½*d.*; Nairn, 1*s.* 0½*d.*; Lanark, 1*s.* 0½*d.*; Forfar, 1*s.*; Kincardine, 1*s.*; Fife, 11½*d.*; Edinburgh, 11½*d.*; Berwick, 11½*d.*; Aberdeen, 11½*d.*; Haddington, 11½*d.*; Perth, 11½*d.*; Stirling, 11½*d.*; Linlithgow, 11*d.*; Ayr, 10½*d.*; Clackmannan, 10½*d.*; Argyll, 10½*d.*; Roxburgh, 10½*d.*; Bute, 10*d.*; Kinross, 10*d.*; Banff, 9½*d.*; Selkirk, 9½*d.*; Elgin, 9½*d.*; Dumfries, 9*d.*; Inverness, 9*d.*; Kirkcudbright, 8½*d.*; Shetland, 8½*d.*; Orkney, 8*d.*; Ross, 7½*d.*; Wigton, 7½*d.*; Sutherland, 7*d.*; Caithness, 5½*d.*

This, however, does not show the whole expenditure for each pauper lunatic, but simply that for his maintenance. The cost of medical certificates, of transport to asylums, &c., which, in 1859, amounted on an average to 16*s.* 7*d.* for each patient, has still to be added. The greatest average annual expenditure under this head was 2*l.* 2*s.* 9½*d.* in Caithness-shire, and the lowest, 2*s.* 6*d.* in Selkirkshire. We have already stated, when speaking of the district of Argyll, that the condition of pauper lunatics cannot be altogether correctly estimated from the mere consideration of the amount of their average allowance. In support of this assertion, it will be sufficient to point out that it is the same in Roxburghshire as in Argyllshire, namely, 10½*d.* a day. But the condition of the patients is very much more satisfactory in the first county than in the second. This result is probably to some extent due to the greater degree of comfort, and the higher standard of living which prevail among the Roxburgh peasantry; but the insufficiency of this explanation as a sole cause will be apparent on comparing the expenditure in Argyllshire with that in the counties of Inverness, Ross, Sutherland, and Caithness. The condition of the insane poor in the whole of these counties is pretty much alike, but the average allowance in each varies materially. Thus it is 9*d.* in Inverness-shire, 7½*d.* in Ross-shire, 7*d.* in Sutherlandshire, and 5½*d.* in Caithness-shire. These differences are in a great degree dependent on the varying proportion of patients sent to asylums; and the expenditure accordingly is highest where this proportion is greatest. It amounts to 37·8 per cent. for Argyllshire, 34·6 per cent. for Inverness-shire, 26·1 per cent. for Ross-shire, 25·1 per cent. for Sutherlandshire, and 24·3 per cent. for Caithness-shire.

There is a class of establishments to which we consider it our duty to

direct attention, as although frequently containing persons who are detained against their will, they are not subject to any official supervision. We refer to houses for the treatment of dipsomaniacs. The best known of these is the House of Refuge in Edinburgh. It contains a considerable number of patients of this class, about twelve of whom were stated to us to be compulsorily detained. These persons chiefly belong to the working-classes; but there are among them some members of the middle-class, such, for instance, as a clergyman's wife, a surgeon's wife, and a merchant's wife. We are aware that several smaller establishments for a like purpose exist throughout the country, but we have no means of knowing to what extent the patients received into them are voluntary, or are detained against their will. There is no doubt that houses for the reclamation of dipsomaniacs are calculated to be of much service to the community, but we are of opinion that they should be placed under official supervision, and that certain forms for the reception and detention of the inmates should be rigidly observed. We would accordingly suggest that such houses should be legally recognised, and that when persons are placed in them, or in ordinary asylums, under certificates of insanity bearing that the malady is due to the abuse of intoxicating liquors, it should be lawful for the superintendent to detain such persons for a period not exceeding three months from the date of admission, even although all symptoms of mental aberration had in the meantime disappeared. And further, that it should be lawful for the superintendent to prolong detention for a period not exceeding a year, whenever the patient had already been the inmate of an establishment for dipsomaniacs, or of an ordinary lunatic asylum on account of intemperance; provided that no such person should be detained for more than three months without the written concurrence of the board, and that such concurrence should be renewed at the expiry of every three months. And we would further suggest, that when any person had obtained a medical certificate that detention in a special establishment, or in an ordinary asylum, would be conducive to the welfare of such person, by depriving him of the opportunity of indulging to excess in intoxicating liquors, it should be lawful to receive him into such establishment or asylum, on his signing a declaration that he was desirous voluntarily to submit himself to the discipline of the house; and that thereafter such patient should be detained, subject to the same regulations as if he had been received on the sheriff's order granted on two medical certificates of insanity.

LUNACY.

*Copy of the Fifteenth Report of the Commissioners in Lunacy to the
Lord Chancellor.*

DURING the ten years from the 1st of January, 1849, to the 1st of January, 1859, the number of patients in the various asylums of England and Wales have advanced from 14,560 to 22,853. This increase has been principally in public asylums. In county and borough asylums the advance has been from 6,494 to 15,845, making an increase of 9,351: in lunatic hospitals from 1,135 to 1,992, making an increase of 857; but as respects licensed

[244]

houses, the numbers have been reduced from 6,931 to 5,016, making a decrease in these houses of 1,915 patients. The great increase which has taken place in the number of patients in asylums is limited almost entirely to pauper and criminal patients.

On the 1st of January, 1849, there were in the various asylums, hospitals, and licensed houses in England and Wales (exclusive of those detained in workhouses, and placed out as single patients), 10,801 pauper patients, and on the 1st of January, 1859, the number amounted to 18,022, making an increase of 7,221 pauper patients in ten years; at the former date, only 6,269 were accommodated in county asylums, but at the latter the number had reached to as many as 15,618. On the other hand, during the same period the number of pauper patients in the licensed houses fell from 4,178 to 2,188, being a diminution of 1,990 in this class of houses.

As respects private patients, the returns show a total increase of 1,072 cases during the ten years, namely, from 3,759 to 4,831. In county asylums the number of private patients remains very nearly the same, there being in them an increase of only two cases. In licensed houses their numbers have advanced from 2,753 to 2,828, and in hospitals, from 781 to 1,776. As regards the number of private patients in licensed houses, it is necessary to bear in mind, that, in the return made in 1849, the patients in the licensed houses at Abington Abbey were then placed to the account of hospitals; that a large number of State patients at Fisherton are now regarded as private patients; and that the insane belonging to the army and navy are now also enumerated as private patients, but were not included at all in the computation in 1849. The statistics of lunacy show an apparent increase of seventy-five private patients in licensed houses during ten years; but, as the military and criminal patients with the inmates of Abington Abbey amounted in January, 1859, to more than three hundred, we arrive at the conclusion that from the year 1849 to 1859 there has been a decrease of at least two hundred and twenty-five private patients in the licensed houses of England and Wales.

As respects the apparent increase of 995 private patients in hospitals, we have to take into consideration that in this number the inmates of Bethlem Hospital, of the Idiot Institution at Earlswood, and of the Naval Hospital at Haslar, who did not appear in the return in 1849, are now included. On the 1st of January, 1859, there were in these three institutions 788 inmates. After deducting this number from the aggregate return of all private patients in hospitals, we find that the number of insane private patients in the hospitals in England and Wales has advanced to the extent of about 207 cases in ten years.*

As, therefore, there has been only an addition of two such cases in county asylums, and as there has been a diminution of numbers in licensed houses to the extent of 225, we may draw the inference that, taking an aggregate of the inmates of all the various asylums in England and Wales, there has not been any increase in the number of registered private patients during the period of ten years ending 1st January, 1859. Thus it appears that while in the period above referred to pauper patients in asylums have advanced to the extent of 7,221, there has been no addition to the number of private patients.

* The number of patients in Abington Abbey being nearly equal to the military officers at Cotton Hill, the subtraction of the one and the addition of the other would not affect the calculation.

Another fact worthy of observation is the disproportion of the two sexes in the private and pauper classes of patients. As respects the former, our returns show that in 1849 there were five more women than men, whereas in 1859 the men exceeded the women by as many as 419, a circumstance explainable by the consideration that at the latter period the military and naval, as well as a proportion of the State patients, were added to the number of private patients. On the other hand, as respects paupers, it appears that in 1849 the women exceeded the men in number by 851, and in 1859 this disproportion amounted to no less than 1,680, a result caused by the rate of mortality being lower among women than men.

The foregoing calculations clearly show, that while the number of pauper patients has increased so enormously, there has been no augmentation of the private class. To ascertain, if possible, the cause of this large increase of pauper patients in so short a time is obviously important, and the questions naturally arise, May it be attributable to an increased amount of pauperism in the country, or to a greater liability to attacks of insanity among the poorer classes, or to both these agencies combined? We have positive information that pauperism has decreased,* and we are unable to discover any material changes in the social condition of the labouring population rendering them more prone to mental disease. Failing to find a satisfactory solution, therefore, on the ground of increase either in pauperism or insanity among the poor, we are driven to search for some other source of a result so remarkable. With this view it will be expedient to take into account every circumstance bearing directly or indirectly on the condition of the insane poor, which may have had the apparent effect of increasing their number. A somewhat extended review of the influences that have of late years been in operation, becomes necessary for this purpose; and it may be convenient to classify the agencies at work, under the following heads, namely:—1st. The large number of cases previously unreported, and only recently brought under observation. 2nd. The increased number of these sent to asylums, and, 3rd. The prolongation of their life when thus brought under care.

There can be very little doubt that the system of observation and inquiry adopted of late years, however imperfect it still may be, has led to the detection and classification as insane of many persons formerly looked upon as ordinary paupers. The definition acted upon by us, that all persons receiving relief on account of mental infirmity should be included in the return; our own visitation of workhouses; the payment made to district medical officers for their attendance on single patients, and for drawing out lists of them four times a year; have all been instrumental in placing on record many cases previously overlooked. Again, the annual returns required from the parochial authorities, and which form the basis of the general summary, although still incomplete, are made in a more satisfactory manner; the omissions both of individual cases from the list, and of unions making no return whatever, being less numerous now than formerly. By these means, therefore, a considerable number of patients, before passed by,

* "The decrease in the average number of paupers of all classes in receipt of relief at one time in 1859, as compared with 1849, is 20·5 per cent.; and as regards able-bodied paupers, the decrease in 1859, as compared with 1849, is 40·7."—*Twelfth Report of the Poor Law Board.*

have been added to the general reckoning of insane paupers. The erection and opening of county lunatic asylums throughout the country, may also have contributed to the same end, by exciting the attention of the public to the subject, and thus tending to the discovery and presentation of fit objects for such institutions.

We now come to consider the effect produced by the removal of patients into county asylums, and especially of those affected with a chronic form of the malady. A very large amount of additional accommodation having been thrown open during the period under review, the parochial authorities have availed themselves of it, and removed to asylums numbers of paupers who would otherwise have remained in the workhouses or cottages. Our own visitation of workhouses, and the careful examination of the quarterly lists of single patients, have caused the removal of many such. The result has been that a large number of pauper lunatics, previously most unfavourably circumstanced, have been placed in houses specially adapted to their cases, and calculated to promote longevity. To what actual extent this has tended to prolong life, is a question not easily solved, because we are unable to discover the rate of mortality that prevailed among this class of patients before their reception into the asylums. But we are warranted in assuming that when destitute and diseased persons are placed under care in establishments well constructed, well regulated, and specially adapted for their protection and treatment, and in which they receive succour, abundant food, and careful medical supervision, the result will be a prolongation of lives which otherwise would have been of short duration. In every other situation, whether lodged in cottages or in workhouses, insane paupers are exposed to many causes of disease and death, from which in county asylums they are entirely protected. While estimating these effects, it is right also to bear in mind that an improvement to a certain extent in the condition of those remaining at home or in lodgings, may have been effected by the regular medical visitation of them which was instituted in 1853. In all probability, some of the causes of disease to which they were formerly exposed have been averted, and an increase of numbers arising from a less rapid removal by death may have taken place. A like result may also have arisen as respects the inmates of workhouses formerly in unhealthy and densely populated localities, but now removed to more open and salubrious sites.

In corroboration of this assumption we may allude to the relative number of insane paupers in districts provided with asylums, as compared with localities where no such provision has been made. If we bring into comparison the two counties of Monmouth and Hereford, having asylum accommodation, with the three counties of Cardigan, Carmarthen, and Pembroke, where no such accommodation exists, we find that the population of the two former counties is nearly equal to that of the three latter; but that where provision has been made, the number of pauper lunatics appears to be in excess in the proportion of 514 to 456; and further, that an excess of 2,000 paupers in receipt of relief are reported in the district having no asylum, over the one provided with such accommodation. Thus, in two contiguous districts in South Wales, nearly equal in population, the one which has a large excess of paupers receiving relief, has at the same time a considerably smaller number of insane paupers under care.

A similar instance may be adduced in the county of Kent. The boroughs

[247]

of Maidstone and Canterbury are nearly equally populous. The former has during a very long period provided for its insane paupers in the neighbouring county asylum, whilst the latter has made no provision whatever, and the returns now show double the number of insane paupers in the provided over the unprovided borough.

Having taken into account the probable effect produced by opening county asylums, and thus bringing insane paupers under their shelter, we now enter on a branch of the subject more capable of demonstration, namely, that the diminished rate of mortality in many of our county asylums, and especially in the large pauper houses, produced in all probability by improved accommodation, food, and medical treatment received therein by the patients, has been an obvious cause of the increase in their numbers. For instance, the average annual mortality in the three metropolitan licensed houses receiving paupers, was, during the five years ending 1843, upwards of 18 per cent. of the patients resident; whereas for several years past the proportion of deaths has been so considerably reduced below this high rate as to have caused a large addition to the aggregate number of pauper patients in the metropolitan district.

The effect of the death rate in diminishing or augmenting the number of patients in asylums may be best shown by noting its operation in the two sexes. It is well known that the rate of mortality stands higher in the male than in the female wards; but the full effect of the greater or less fatality of the disease in lessening or increasing the number of the insane population, can only be fully estimated by observing the changes among the inmates of asylums during a long period of years. In illustration of this, we propose to review the movement of the population in the county and borough asylums. From these it appears that in the five years ending January 1st, 1859, a larger number of men than of women were admitted, and during the same period 700 more women than men were discharged; from which it might be presumed that a corresponding diminution would be the result. We find, however, that at the end of that period there were 227 more women than men patients as compared with the relative number at its beginning. Thus, by reason of a lower rate of mortality among women, although a smaller number were admitted and a larger number discharged, yet in relation to the number of men there has been a considerable increase. In fact, as 700 more women than men were discharged, the lower death rate among the women may be said to have augmented the number of this sex by nearly 1,000 during a period of five years. In the general population of the country a somewhat analogous effect results from a like cause. A much larger number of boys than girls are born every year; and yet, owing to the greater rate of mortality among the former, the result is a considerable preponderance of women.

The foregoing considerations incline us to believe that the great accumulation of pauper patients, as shown by our own records and those of the Poor Law Board, is mainly attributable:—

1st. To the more complete collection of annual returns, formerly very defective in this respect.

2nd. To the detection and registration of cases formerly left unnoticed.

3rd. To the removal of a larger proportion of patients from localities where they were exposed to causes of death, into asylums favouring the prolongation of life.

4th. To the effect of sanitary regulations in asylums, of improved diet,

[248]

and of various means of sustaining the health and promoting the longevity of the entire body of inmates.

5th. To a like effect on those out of asylums, from the removal of large workhouses to more healthy sites, and from the medical visitation of such of the insane paupers as are neither in workhouses or asylums.

Though it might, on the other hand, be fairly supposed that the increased proportion of cures in recent cases, sent to asylums, caused by the improved modes of treatment now adopted, would have had the effect of diminishing the aggregate numbers resident, this latter cause of decrease, in the comparatively few recent cases admitted, has apparently been more than counterbalanced by the prolongation of the lives of the many chronic cases brought under care. And as in certain localities unprovided with any recognized means of sheltering their insane paupers, we have shown that their seeming proportion to the population is small, so if we look to other countries we shall find that in proportion to the amount of the provision made by the State, will be the apparent ratio of the insane to the population. Considerations such as these furnish abundant reason for discrediting the statements which foreign authors have founded on our returns, to the effect that the inhabitants of this country are more liable to insanity than those of any other civilized state.

Having thus indicated what we believe to be the causes of the great apparent accumulation of pauper patients, we come to deal practically with the fact that such causes being still in operation, we can only calculate on a further progressive increase; and we accordingly draw attention to the subject, in the hope that committees of visitors will see the necessity of a timely increase of accommodation. Whether some means might not also be adopted for effecting a legal transfer of some of the harmless and chronic pauper cases to the care of relatives, with provision at the same time for securing the payment of an adequate sum for their care, maintenance, and medical visitation, is, we think, matter for consideration deserving the attention of the Legislature.

At a time when so large an amount of public accommodation exists, it may seem unreasonable to urge the necessity of making further provision; nevertheless, the returns before us show the importance of such a step, for the admissions into county and borough asylums during the latter half of the ten years under review, appear to have been in excess of the former half, to the extent of nearly 3,000. During the five years ending 1853, 20,544 cases were admitted; and during the five years ending 1858, the numbers were 23,256; showing a steady increase in the influx of patients into our public asylums. Even during the past year only, the number of patients in county and borough asylums has advanced to the extent of no less than 1,151. It might be supposed that the admission of so many patients into asylums would be followed by a corresponding, or at all events a considerable, diminution of those placed or retained in workhouses, or receiving out-door relief. So far from this, however, being the case, the subjoined return shows that the insane poor, whether in workhouses, or as single patients, have not diminished, but on the contrary have increased in number to a very considerable extent; a circumstance attributable in all probability, as we have endeavoured to point out, to the more complete registration of cases, and the greater attention which has been paid to their well-being of late years.

We now pass to the consideration of another branch of the same subject,

[249]

namely, the circumstances that have conduced to bring under our notice a number of cases belonging to the class of private patients, which otherwise must have escaped observation and registration. There can be no doubt that the establishment of our board has led to the detection of a number of uncertified patients, formerly placed singly in lodgings with strangers; and we have in several instances become aware of the existence of unlicensed houses, where two or more patients were received and detained without certificates or registration. There is also good reason to believe that a not uncommon practice exists of sending certain classes of the insane to reside in ordinary boarding houses. The proceedings adopted, whether by prosecution or otherwise, when such cases have been detected, have invariably resulted in the patients becoming either single patients or inmates of asylums, and the apparent number of private patients has thus been considerably increased, although in reality there has been no actual augmentation. Such a result might have been anticipated: and as, in countries where there is no constituted authority, or only a very limited one over the insane members of the community, causes are in operation which conceal or suppress the real amount of pauper lunacy; so, with reference to the higher class of patients, a dangerous scope is permitted to the desire inherent in all families, to confine and conceal from view any of their members who may be mentally afflicted, even when such seclusion is most detrimental. Indeed, up to a few years, our own capability of detecting such breaches of the statutory provisions was extremely limited, and it was not until 1853 that our power in this respect became enlarged by an enactment extending to all the commissioners the authority and powers of visitation over single patients previously vested in a private committee, consisting of only three of our members. The result has been, the discovery of a largely increased number of unrecorded cases.

Finally, it is to be remarked as respects the class of private patients, in reference to the circumstance that their number in licensed houses has fallen considerably during ten years, and that in asylums generally there has been no increase—that many old standing cases not before reported, are included in the returns as now made; and it is evident, therefore, that a just comparison of the relative numbers at the beginning and end of the period under review, can only be made by deducting from the present number the cases formerly omitted. By doing this, we arrive at the conclusion that the proportion of private patients in the various asylums of England and Wales, has diminished during a period of ten years; and this, notwithstanding the improvements effected in those houses during that time, rendering them more comfortable and cheerful, and increasing the inducements to send patients into them.

One other branch of the subject remains for remark, namely, the great increase which has taken place in the class of so-called criminal patients, and here, again, the foregoing reasoning is strictly applicable. Our visitation of gaols, and the increased attention given by inspectors and medical officers to the mental condition of prisoners in whom unsoundness of mind has been suspected, have led to the transference of many inmates into asylums, and thus the number of State patients has been augmented to a certain extent.

It would appear, then, upon a review of the whole subject, that while, in the ten years ending January, 1859, the number of private patients in the houses placed under our supervision has diminished, the number of pauper

and State patients has increased in a remarkable degree; that this increase is attributable to the introduction of a better system of bringing such cases under notice and care; and that we have not found any reasons supporting the opinion generally entertained that the community are more subject than formerly to attacks of insanity.

TABLE showing the MEAN POPULATION, NUMBER OF PATIENTS TREATED, and the DEATHS, in COUNTY and BOROUGH ASYLUMS, HOSPITALS, and LICENSED HOUSES; also the AVERAGE ANNUAL RATE of MORTALITY per Cent., and the MEAN TERM of TREATMENT of PATIENTS, during the Five Years ending 31st December, 1858.

Ages.	Mean Population.			Estimated Number of Patients.	Deaths.	Average Mortality per Cent.			Mean Term of Treatment, in Years.
	M.	F.	T.			M.	F.	T.	
All ages ...	9,460·0	10,765·0	20,225·0	35,652·0	11,090	13·25	8·96	10·97	2·84
Under 15 years	110·0	77·5	187·5	438·5	60	6·91	5·68	6·40	2·14
15 and under 20	243·5	216·0	459·5	1,801·5	172	8·30	6·57	7·49	1·28
20	576·5	515·0	1,091·5	3,395·5	456	8·30	8·43	8·36	1·61
25	884·0	833·5	1,717·5	3,828·5	630	8·08	6·55	7·34	2·24
30	1,115·0	1,071·0	2,186·0	4,410·0	1,090	12·20	7·66	9·97	2·48
35	1,162·5	1,173·0	2,335·5	4,203·5	1,285	13·85	8·22	11·00	2·78
40	1,113·5	1,279·5	2,393·0	4,040·0	1,288	14·91	7·16	10·76	2·96
45	928·5	1,187·0	2,115·5	3,230·2	1,113	14·41	7·48	10·52	3·27
50	802·5	1,099·5	1,902·0	2,937·0	979	14·48	7·24	10·29	3·24
55	655·5	902·5	1,558·0	1,982·0	872	14·28	8·95	11·19	4·03
60	492·0	677·5	1,169·5	1,825·5	847	17·60	12·22	14·48	3·20
65	323·0	478·5	801·5	1,140·5	774	22·41	17·22	19·31	3·51
70 and upwards	330·5	524·0	854·5	1,248·5	1,190	31·16	25·76	27·86	3·42
Not stated ...	723·0	730·5	1,453·5	1,220·5	334	5·34	3·86	4·60	5·96

TABLE showing the Number of PATIENTS ADMITTED into the LUNATIC ASYLUMS, HOSPITALS, and LICENSED HOUSES, in ENGLAND and WALES, during the Year 1857, with the period of duration of existing Attack at the time of Admission; also, of the NUMBERS so ADMITTED in 1857, the NUMBERS DISCHARGED during the Three Years 1857 to 1859 (inclusive); and the NUMBERS REMAINING at the end of 1859.

Duration of Existing Attack at the time of Admission.	Total Number of Patients Admitted during the year 1857.	Discharged during the Three Years, 1857 to 1859 (inclusive).						Number of Patients Remaining at the end of 1859.
		Recovered.	Relieved.	Not Improved.	Died.	Not Stated.	Total Discharged.	
TOTAL ...	7,708	2,740	763	635	1,507	58	5,703	2,005
Under 1 month ...	2,209	1,125	215	127	392	11	1,870	339
1 to 3 months ...	1,505	683	170	97	294	12	1,256	249
3 to 6 months ...	825	290	79	74	190	6	639	186
6 to 12 months ...	575	166	50	73	143	8	435	140
1 to 3 years ...	633	100	83	56	165	12	416	217
3 to 6 years ...	234	26	29	21	51	...	127	107
6 years and upwards	444	22	27	35	77	2	163	281
Not stated ...	1,283	328	110	152	195	12	797	141

TABLE showing the NUMBER of PATIENTS ADMITTED into the LUNATIC ASYLUMS, HOSPITALS, and LICENSED HOUSES, in ENGLAND and WALES during the Year 1857; also the proportion per Cent. of the Patients so admitted 1857 who were Discharged during the Three Years 1857 to 1859, and also those who were remaining at the end of 1859.

Duration of Existing Attack at the Time of Admission.	Total Number of Patients Admitted during the year 1857.	Proportion per Cent. on Patients Admitted in 1857.						Patients Remaining at the end of 1859.
		Discharged during the Three Years 1857 to 1859 (inclusive).						
		Recovered.	Relieved.	Not Improved.	Died.	Not Stated.	Total Dis- charged.	
TOTAL	7,708	35·6	9·9	8·2	19·6	·7	74·0	26·0
Under 1 month ...	2,209	50·9	9·7	5·8	17·8	·5	84·7	15·3
1 and under 3 months	1,505	45·4	11·3	6·5	19·5	·8	83·5	16·5
3 " 6 "	825	35·2	9·6	9·0	23·0	·7	77·5	22·5
6 " 12 "	575	28·9	8·7	12·7	24·9	·5	75·7	24·3
1 " 3 years..	633	15·8	13·1	8·8	26·1	1·9	65·7	34·3
3 " 6 " ..	234	11·1	12·4	9·0	21·8	...	54·3	45·7
6 years and upwards	444	5·0	6·1	7·9	17·3	·4	36·7	63·3
Not stated	1,283	25·6	8·6	11·8	15·2	·9	62·1	37·9
Under 1 year	5,114	44·3	10·0	7·3	19·9	·6	82·1	17·9
1 and under 6 years.	867	14·5	12·9	8·9	24·9	1·4	62·6	37·4
6 years and upwards	444	5·0	6·1	7·9	17·3	·4	36·7	63·3

NUMBER of INSANE PERSONS in COUNTY and BOROUGH ASYLUMS, HOSPITALS, and LICENSED HOUSES, on 1st January, 1849.

—	Private.			Pauper.			Total Lunatics.
	M.	F.		M.	F.		
County Asylums	112	113	225	2,953	3,316	6,269	6,494
Hospitals	359	422	781	176	178	354	1,135
Metropolitan Houses ...	582	595	1,177	781	1,179	1,960	3,137
Provincial Licensed Houses	824	752	1,576	1,065	1,153	2,218	3,794
Totals	1,877	1,882	3,759	4,975	5,826	10,801	14,560

NUMBER of INSANE PERSONS in COUNTY and BOROUGH ASYLUMS, HOSPITALS, and LICENSED HOUSES, on 1st January, 1859.

—	Private.			Pauper.			Total Lunatics.
	M.	F.		M.	F.		
County Asylums	122	105	227	7,129	8,489	15,618	15,845
Hospitals*... ..	1,003	773	1,776	108	108	216	1,992
Metropolitan Houses ...	663	624	1,287	465	799	1,264	2,551
Provincial Licensed Houses	837	704	1,541	469	455	924	2,465
Totals	2,625	2,206	4,831	8,171	9,851	18,022	22,853

* Including the Royal Naval Hospital, Haslar.

BUSINESS OF THE HOUSE.

Report from the Select Committee of the House of Commons appointed to consider whether by any alteration in the Forms and Proceedings of this House the despatch of Public Business can be more effectually promoted.

THE Committee was appointed on the 7th February, 1861, and nominated on the 11th, to consist of Viscount Palmerston, Sir James Graham, Sir Francis Baring, Sir George Grey, Mr. Bright, Sir George Lewis, Mr. Edward Pleydell Bouverie, Mr. Gregory, Mr. Dunlop, Mr. Massey, Mr. William Ewart, Mr. Disraeli, Lord Stanley, Sir John Pakington, Mr. Walpole, Mr. Sotheron Estcourt, Mr. Hardy, Colonel Wilson Patten, Mr. Maguire, Mr. Ker Seymer, and Mr. Deedes.

The Committee examined the Right Hon. Mr. Speaker, Mr. Thomas Erskine May, C.B., and Mr. William Nathaniel Massey, M.P., and on the 19th April they reported as follows:—

In discharge of the duty confided to them, your Committee in the first instance directed their attention to the inquiries and reports of three select committees, which have been appointed within the last thirty years, for the purpose of considering the best means whereby public business might be conducted in the House of Commons with improved regularity and despatch.

The first of these committees was appointed in 1837, and recommended only two changes, comparatively small, in the ancient rules and established orders, both of which were adopted by the House.

The second committee was appointed in 1848. Mr. Evelyn Denison, the present Speaker of the House of Commons, presided over it. Various important changes were considered by that committee. The evidence of distinguished foreigners was taken with regard to the forms and order of proceeding in the popular assemblies of France and of the United States of America. No changes based on these models were recommended. The alterations adopted were six in number, although many others were discussed. The most important of them was that by which the rule of progress was applied to committees of the whole House on public bills.

Again, in 1854, the same question was referred to a third committee. They also took evidence, and entered into a large inquiry. They heard the opinion of Lord Eversley, then Speaker, with respect both to the causes of delay in the transaction of public business, and the remedies which might be applied. Thirty-six alterations were proposed by the chairman; they were tantamount to a revision of the standing orders of the House, and to a change of many ancient usages; but the Committee were unable to concur in the great majority of these proposals, and ended in making to the House nine recommendations. Eight of these were adopted. They were of the same character as those which were sanctioned by the House on the Report of the Committee in 1848, and may be regarded rather as supplementary aids than as decisive changes.

On all these occasions, the House and its committees have proceeded with the utmost caution. They have treated with respect the written and the unwritten law of Parliament, which for ages has secured a good system of legislation, perfect freedom of debate, and a due regard for the rights of minorities.

This respect for tradition and this caution in making changes have pro-

ceeded on the principle, that no change is justifiable which experience has not proved to be necessary, and that the maintenance of the old rules is preferable to new, but speculative, amendments.

It is also to be observed, that this caution in making changes has not been unproductive of advantage. The new rules, which have been introduced in consequence of the Reports of the three committees above enumerated, have been found to work so well, that not one of them has been hitherto either altered or rescinded. Such, then, being the principle on which proposed alterations in the forms and proceedings of the House may be safely founded, the question arises, what are the objects to be kept stedfastly in view when alterations are suggested or adopted? These objects are well defined by Lord Eversley in his evidence before the committee of 1854, when he says, "In all the improvements that we have yet made in the conduct of public business, we have endeavoured, as much as possible, to let the House understand exactly what questions they will have to discuss, and prevent surprises, and also to give some certainty to our proceedings."

The present Speaker strongly corroborates this opinion. He says that the most important thing to which the attention of this Committee can be directed is certainty, day by day, so far as it is possible, as to the business to be transacted; and that, for despatch, for the convenience of members, and for decorum of proceedings, certainty is to be regarded as the primary object. Mr. Massey also, the Chairman of the Committee of Ways and Means, considers it desirable, for the order of proceedings, as well as for the convenience of members, that some closer approximation to certainty, in the arrangement of the business of the House should, if possible, be effected.

In pursuit of this object of greater certainty in the proceedings of the House, the special attention of your Committee was called by the Speaker to the motions constantly made before going into committees of supply. Although only one amendment to each motion "That the Speaker do leave the chair," can be put to the vote, yet the attention of the House may on that motion be called to any number of questions, and a long debate may be taken before the House resolves itself into a committee. This course may be daily repeated on the same class of estimates, and long delay as well as uncertainty is the consequence before the details of the estimates can be considered. The remedy suggested by Mr. Speaker is, that upon the four great heads of the Army, the Navy, the Revenue Departments, and the Civil Service, the House, having once gone into committee, might, on that same head of Estimates, resume its deliberations in committee without any question being put. In a word, that the same rule of progress which prevails with regard to committees on bills, might be extended to committees of supply on these four classes of estimates. This suggestion was offered to the Committee of 1854, as appears from their report: yet, from fear of unduly limiting the opportunities of debate, and of the discussion of grievances, the Committee, while admitting the inconvenience complained of, declined to recommend the adoption of any new rule by the House. This cause of delay, if it be an evil, has now for seven years remained unchecked, and, in the opinion of the Speaker, the delay has increased. At the same time, without imposing some new restriction, it is admitted by the Speaker to be impossible to avoid these delays, and to give greater certainty to progress in committees of supply.

Your Committee have anxiously considered the policy of imposing some

such check. The time consumed in these preliminary discussions was in the last session on an average three hours each day, on the eleven occasions when the motion was made for the Speaker leaving the chair to go into committee on these four classes of estimates, which is equivalent to the average of time occupied in four Government order days. It cannot be denied that these multiplied preliminary motions are a serious obstacle to certainty in the proceedings of the House, and are a cause of much delay. On the other hand, it must be remembered, that the statement and consideration of grievances before supply are among the most ancient and important privileges of the Commons, and this opportunity of obtaining full explanation from the ministers of the Crown, is the surest and the best. Before going into a committee of supply, the ministers have an interest both in making a House and in keeping a House. The debate proceeds, with the Speaker in the chair, with an appropriate motion under discussion, and the strictest rules of debate are necessarily observed. Your Committee moreover apprehend that the application of the rule of progress as proposed to committee of supply, might produce serious inconvenience by creating an additional obstacle to the Speaker leaving the chair for the first time on going into any class of estimates, and thereby delaying votes in supply which may be of great importance to the public service. On the whole, therefore, your Committee adhere to the decision of the Committee in 1854, and have not thought it expedient to recommend a departure from established usage in this particular.

Under this same head of greater certainty, and of avoiding needless consumption of time, another question presented itself, which had been considered by the Committee in 1854. It relates to the motion ordinarily made on Fridays, "That the House at its rising do adjourn to Monday next." The Committee of 1854 recommended that, by a standing order, the House on Friday "should stand adjourned till the following Monday, without question put, unless the House should otherwise resolve." This recommendation was brought in 1854 under the consideration of the House; it was not negatived, but the motion to give effect to it was withdrawn, from the disinclination of the House to adopt it. This disinclination has been indicated in a marked manner for the last seven years, and now almost invariably on every Friday a desultory discussion takes place on the motion of adjournment to Monday. Doubtless many grave objections may be urged against these discussions, especially when prolonged. They are inconclusive, because no amendment to the question before the House can be moved, except as to the time of the adjournment; they are irregular, because they have no reference to the question put from the chair; they are unsatisfactory, because various subjects are interlaced; and they are dangerous in their tendency, as leading to a relaxation of the strict rules of debate, the maintenance of which rules in all their integrity is essential to the character and the dignity of the House of Commons. The practice, as it now exists, imposes on the Speaker the undefined and embarrassing responsibility of endeavouring to enforce order in discussions not strictly orderly; and this responsibility is increased by every attempt to classify the various topics, with reference to the minister to whom various questions are to be put. Attempts of this kind give rise to dissatisfaction as tending to obstruct the free current of debate. Nevertheless these discussions have been found convenient, as affording prompt opportunities for bringing before the House matters of interest as they arise at short intervals: they often supersede

the necessity of formal motions, which would occupy much longer time, and without altogether setting aside the rules of debate, they give some latitude to questions and answers, accompanied by reasons. These balanced considerations have been weighed by your Committee. The Speaker, with the view of attaining certainty as to the hour of commencing the business of the day, suggested a limitation in point of time, and proposed that at a given hour on Friday the question of adjournment, if not previously decided, should be put, and the voices be taken. A resolution to this effect was moved in your Committee, but was negatived, on a division, by a majority of two, the ayes being eight, and the noes ten. This proposal is obviously of the nature of a compromise: but it has been urged that it removes none of the objections; it restricts the advantages, if advantages there be; it would save some loss of time, at the expense of the introduction of a new principle into the proceedings of the House: it would cut short debate by the clock, without adjournment, and before its natural termination. But your Committee are of opinion that the advantages of the practice might be equally obtained in a more regular manner.

In strict conformity with the ancient usage of the House, the motion for going into a committee of supply, or of ways and means, does afford a legitimate opportunity for the introduction of wide and full discussion on every variety of subjects. A range as unlimited as that now assumed on the motion for adjournment to Monday is thereby opened without the transgression of any rules or usages of the House; and the vote in conclusion bears relation to the debate which precedes it.

Your Committee think it therefore expedient to adopt the standing order recommended by the committee of 1854, whereby the House at its rising on Friday, without motion made, would stand adjourned to the Monday following, unless the House shall otherwise resolve; but this on condition that Friday be a Government order day throughout the session; and that the motion for a committee of supply or of ways and means stand first among the Government orders on that day.

The motion for adjournment on Fridays would thus be superseded and the proceedings on Friday evenings, unrestricted, although desultory, would be conducted according to the established rules of debate, on a suitable motion, and with an appropriate conclusion.

Apart from the consideration of the means of giving greater certainty to the transaction of the daily business of the House, your Committee have directed their attention to the inquiry whether any impediments to the progress of measures from the first commencement of each session can be justly attributed to the standing orders.

By standing order, 25th June, 1852 (No. 408), the committees of supply and ways and means are fixed for Monday, Wednesday, and Friday, and for any other day on which orders of the day shall have precedence of notices of motions.

By standing orders, 25th June, 1852 (No. 97), unless the House shall otherwise direct, all orders of the day set down in the order book for Mondays, Wednesdays, and Fridays are to be disposed of before the House will proceed on any motions of which notices shall have been given.

By No. 99 the orders of the day are to be disposed of in the order in which they stand upon the paper, the right being secured to her Majesty's ministers of placing Government orders at the head of the list, in the

rotation in which they are to be taken on the days on which Government bills have precedence.

The days on which this precedence is now given to Government orders at the commencement of the session are limited to two, namely, Monday and Thursday; since by a recent arrangement Thursday has been substituted for Friday as an order day. On Wednesdays the Government orders have no precedence, and the bills introduced by private members generally occupy the whole of each Wednesday until the close of the session is at hand.

On Tuesdays and on Fridays notices of motion have precedence; and the practical operation is this: that on two only out of five sitting days in each week can the Government business be brought forward with certainty.

It is true that a third order day is generally conceded to the Government towards the middle of the session, but it must be remembered how large a proportion of the public business transacted is now devolved on the ministers of the Crown. All questions of supply and of ways and means are exclusively in their hands; and for the express purpose of bringing large branches of the public expenditure more closely under the annual review of the House of Commons, numerous charges have been recently removed from the Consolidated Fund, and have been placed on the Estimates. Moreover, the whole cost of the collection of the revenue is now submitted in detail, to annual vote. These salutary changes have added greatly to the labours of the committee of supply, and make a large deduction from the time available for Government bills on order nights.

Although it is expedient to preserve for individual members ample opportunity for the introduction and passing of legislative measures, yet it is the primary duty of the advisers of the Crown to lay before Parliament such changes in the law as in their judgment are necessary; and while they possess the confidence of the House of Commons and remain responsible for good government and for the safety of the State, it would seem reasonable that a preference should be yielded to them, not only in the introduction of their bills, but in the opportunities for pressing them on the consideration of the House.

It has been already observed that at an advanced period of the session a third night in the week is generally set apart for Government orders; but it ought not to be forgotten that it is at the commencement of the session, when the real pressure is most urgent for the early transaction of the Government business. The Mutiny Acts expire annually on the 25th of April. Previously to their introduction for renewal the number of men must be voted in a committee of supply. On the number of men mainly depends the annual charge for the army and navy, which constitutes the largest portion of the supplies to be voted for the year. Much discussion necessarily arises; and thus, before Easter, the two Government order nights in each week are principally occupied by debates before going into committee of supply on the navy and army estimates, and by the consideration of the leading details of these two estimates in committee.

The obvious effect of this delay is to retard legislation and to postpone the consideration of the Government bills until after Easter. A further consequence is, the failure of many bills which are introduced. For this the Government cannot be fairly blamed. Some are withdrawn in the Commons from the want of time fully to consider them; others miscarry

in the House of Lords, where they are set aside without discussion of their merits on the ground of the lateness of the session.

These considerations have led your Committee to the conclusion that more time should be given for Government orders of the day from the first commencement of each session; and that the standing orders of the 25th June, 1852, should be revised. With this view your Committee have agreed to recommend:—1st. That the committees of supply and ways and means may be fixed for any day on which the House shall meet for despatch of public business. 2nd. That on Friday, until the end of the present session, orders of the day shall have precedence of notices of motions, the right being reserved to her Majesty's ministers of placing Government orders at the head of the list.

The first of these two recommendations will leave untouched the precedence given on Tuesdays to notices of motions over orders of the day. Private members will continue to enjoy, unchanged and unrestricted, their present right of making motions on Tuesdays before any order of the day can be considered; and this recommendation, if adopted, will give on Tuesdays to the ministers of the Crown no power of placing their orders at the head of the list. Its limited effect will be to enable the ministers to place supply on Tuesdays among the orders of the day, but without precedence. In the early part of the session this power may not be operative, but, as the session advances, occasions will occur when progress in supply may be made on Tuesdays after the termination of debates on motions.

An indirect effect also of this recommendation may be anticipated. It is remarkable that, since the year 1856, on no one occasion has the House not been made at four o'clock. In the present Parliament, since July, 1859, the House has been counted out eighteen times. This happened nine times out of the eighteen on Tuesdays, and eight times out of the nine before nine o'clock. It may be conjectured that ministers on Tuesdays, having little business of their own fixed for that day, are indifferent as to keeping a House. The contingent right to bring on supply at a later hour of the evening would give to the ministers an interest in keeping a House, and a portion of a fifth night in many weeks of the session might thus be gained for public business.

These reasons have a bearing on the second recommendation of your Committee. Independently of Tuesday, which will continue to be the motion night, the opportunities of making motions are numerous throughout the session before going into committees of supply and ways and means. With the view of advancing public business, order days are indispensable; and on casting the balance between motions and orders, your Committee are of opinion that three days out of five in every week set apart for orders will greatly facilitate the despatch of public business without an undue encroachment on the privilege of private members. Your Committee, therefore, recommend the trial of this change in the standing orders, at least for the present session.

Before the committee of 1854, Lord Eversley expressed an opinion, "that it would be desirable that a bill which has been committed to a select committee upstairs should not in all cases pass through a committee of the whole House." He thought that the present practice of the House might be modified in this particular, and "that the rule of re-committing to a Committee of the whole House might, in certain cases, be dispensed with."

The Speaker decidedly concurs in this opinion. He says that, "while other recommendations would, perhaps, tend more to certainty in the conduct of business, some alteration with regard to the proceedings in committee would, perhaps, tend to expedite public business more than anything which has yet been considered." Mr. Speaker then proceeds to state fully his reasons for this opinion. They are strong, and are clearly enunciated, and your Committee trust that they will receive the careful consideration of the House.

It is not proposed that in any case a bill after its second reading shall be referred to a select committee without a distinct motion from the chair, and without the special order of the House; but on the report from the select committee it is proposed that the bill shall not be re-committed to a committee of the whole House without a motion made and carried to that effect. The presumption now is that the examination of a bill before a select committee is insufficient, and that examination ought, clause by clause, to be repeated in the House. By the proposed change the presumption would be inverted. The examination of the bill before the select committee would stand good and be held to be sufficient unless the House by vote should declare to the contrary and order the bill, either in whole or in part, to be re-committed to a committee of the whole House.

The precise nature of this proposal is worthy of close attention. If a motion be made that a bill after the second reading be referred to a select committee, the House on each occasion will have the opportunity of exercising its judgment whether the principle and details of the measure are so much intermixed as to render the reference to a committee upstairs inexpedient. The controlling power of the House over each bill will in no degree be compromised. The decision to refer or not to refer will remain entirely in their own hands; and when the report comes down from the select committee the House will have an ample opportunity of revising the proceedings and the decisions of the select committee. If they be sanctioned, the delay and the unnecessary step of a reference to a committee of the whole House will be avoided. If it be deemed necessary or wise to reconsider the amendments on motion the bill will be re-committed and an appeal will thus be given to the judgment of the whole House.

Without re-committing the entire bill there may be frequently great advantage in re-committing certain clauses only. The consolidation of the Statute Law is now a great branch of law reform; but consolidation without amendment is imperfect, and the re-enactment of the existing law without change may be well considered in all its details exclusively by a select committee and a great saving of time be thereby effected; yet changes in the provisions of the law ought still to be submitted to the collective wisdom of the House, and this might be conveniently done if clauses containing new matter were specially reported by the select committee; and if these clauses only were re-committed to the whole House.

The bills which have been sent down by the Lords in the present session for the consolidation of an important branch of the criminal law and for the repeal of statutes which have fallen into desuetude would afford a good opportunity for testing the experiment. The latter bill contains a schedule of 108 pages, in which are given the titles of nearly 800 Acts of Parliament to be repealed in whole or in part. Your Committee recommend, therefore, that, when a public bill has been committed to a select com-

mittee, and reported to the House, the bill, as amended, shall be appointed for consideration on a future day, when, unless the House shall order the bill generally or specially in respect of any particular clause or clauses thereof to be re-committed to a committee of the whole House after the consideration of the report, the bill may be ordered to be read a third time.

Your Committee have not overlooked a proposal made in the other House of Parliament, that a power should be given by statute to either House of Parliament of suspending (at any stage of proceeding) bills which shall have been passed by the other House of Parliament, and of resuming such bills in the succeeding session at the precise stage where they had been dropped.

The objections to this proposal are grave and numerous. The power sought would only be exercised with respect to important measures; and this power of suspension would give increased facilities for retarding legislation. There is also much greater facility in altering in a new session the fame and scope of a measure when it has been extinguished by prorogation. A bill sent from one House and suspended in the other could not be amended during the recess. It must be resumed as it was left: and all amendments, which might then be introduced, could be fully debated in one House only: for the House, to which the amended bill is returned, cannot re-commit it, but must accept or reject the amendments proposed. The opportunities for reconsidering, improving, and amply discussing important measures would thus be inconveniently abridged.

Moreover, this suspending power in either House of Parliament, if exercised at its own discretion, would be at variance with the prerogative of the Crown. The deliberations of Parliament may be cut short at any moment by the exercise of the royal power of prorogation, which quashes all proceedings pending at the time, except impeachments by the Commons, writs of error and appeals before the House of Lords, and trials in progress before election committees. Every bill must be renewed after a prorogation, as if it had never been introduced, though the prorogation be for no more than a single day. In 1689, Parliament was prorogued from the 21st of October to the 23rd, for the purpose of re-introducing the Bill of Rights, concerning which a difference, fatal to its progress, had risen between the two Houses.

In June, 1610, the Commons established a rule "that no bill of the same substance be brought in the same session," and so imperative has this rule been regarded, that in 1707 Parliament was prorogued for a week, in order to admit the revival of a bill which had been rejected by the Lords.

If this power of suspending had then existed, in neither of these two cases could the prerogative of prorogation have been exercised with its salutary effects; and the tendency of this new power would be to give to the House exerting it an equivalent to the royal veto in its mild form, when the Sovereign declares "*Le Roi s'avisera.*"

But in the bill introduced in the House of Lords in 1848, there was a provision that the consent of the Crown should be first duly signified to such suspension. This consent of the Crown to the mode of dealing with bills not perfected by the concurrence of the other branches of the Legislature, would be a novelty at variance with constitutional practice, not to be defended by any necessity. The prerogative of the Crown, in all cases where the rights, interests, and property of the Crown are not specially affected, is limited to assenting to or rejecting bills which have passed both Houses. It

is barred from all interference during the discussion of them in either House of Parliament.

On the whole, therefore, your Committee adhere to the opinion expressed by the select committee in 1848, and which came to the resolution, "that, having considered the provisions of the Parliamentary Proceedings Adjournment Bill, they do not think it advisable to recommend it for adoption by the House."

Your Committee cannot leave unnoticed an intimation, which they have received from the select committee of the House of Lords on public business, that they would suggest for adoption by both Houses the three following resolutions:—1st. That it is expedient, in certain cases, to adopt an abridged form of proceeding with reference to bills which shall be again brought before this House after having been passed by it, in the immediately preceding session of the same Parliament. 2nd. That the bills in respect to which such abridged form of proceeding may be adopted, shall be *mutatis mutandis* the same bills which this House may have passed and sent to the other House, and as to which that House may have resolved that there did not remain time for their due consideration in the session in which they were received. 3rd. That on a resolution being moved, that it is expedient again to pass, and to send to the other House for its concurrence, any such bill, the question shall be put whether the House will agree to the same, and on such resolution being agreed to, the bill to which it relates shall be forthwith sent to the other House for its concurrence, without any further question being put or any debate allowed.

These resolutions are not, indeed, open to the objection of interference with the prerogative of the Crown, as they do not contemplate the actual suspension of bills from one session to another, notwithstanding a prorogation; nor are they open to the objection of sanctioning a novel practice as to the concurrence of the Crown in the mode of dealing with bills in progress through Parliament.

But their avowed object is to provide in certain cases for the resumption, in a new session of the same Parliament, of bills passed by one House and not considered by the other, by means of new and summary forms of proceeding, which they declare it expedient to adopt.

The objections already stated against a statute for the purpose above-mentioned apply in a great degree to these resolutions. They, in common with the statute, would apply only to measures of importance, involving considerable detail; and it is extremely improbable that, after an interval of several months, either House would desire to send up to the other House measures of this nature without any amendment.

In order, however, to effect this object, if desired, the resolutions, so far as the Commons are concerned, are not necessary. Whenever it may be thought desirable promptly to pass, and to send to the other House for its concurrence, a bill passed in a former session, but set aside in the Lords, the Commons may pass the bill rapidly through all its stages, if they be so minded; and this course is not open to the objection of providing fresh opportunities for the postponement of legislation.

With regret, therefore, your Committee have come to the conclusion that the three resolutions, suggested by the committee of the House of Lords, cannot be recommended to the Commons for their adoption.

There is a minor point, on which it is understood a new arrangement might be made by the Commons, which would be satisfactory to the Lords.

Every bill sent up from the Commons is, on the motion of the Chairman of Committees, read a first time, and is ordered to be printed, as a matter of course and of courtesy, but no time is necessarily fixed for the second reading. Bills sent from the Lords to the Commons are not so treated: they are not read a first time and printed, unless some member, who makes the motion, proposes also a day for the second reading. By a standing order of the House of Commons, made on 25th June, 1852, when any bill is presented by a member in pursuance of an order of this House, or is brought from the Lords, the questions, "That the bill be read a first time," and "that it be printed," are to be decided without amendment or debate; and no bill can therefore be read a first time and printed without such leave being obtained. Your Committee apprehend, that if the suggested alteration as to bills brought from the Lords were to be adopted, it might lead to an alteration of this established usage of the Commons, which your Committee think would not be expedient. The Lords are desirous that bills in the same circumstances should be treated alike in both Houses. But the practice of the two Houses, with respect to the introduction of bills, is dissimilar. No member of the House of Commons can bring in a bill without a vote of the House, after due notice, permitting its introduction: and even when leave has been so given, the first reading is a question to be put from the chair. It is not expedient, in the opinion of your Committee, to change this established usage of the Commons; and some danger of a departure from it might be incurred by the adoption of the suggested alteration.

It is admitted that within the last few years the public and private business of the House has greatly increased. It must be admitted also that this increase of business has been met by corresponding diligence and energy on the part of the House. In the last session of Parliament, the House on an average sat nearly nine hours on five days in each week. The number of days of sitting was 145; the entire number of hours was 1,244; the number of hours after midnight, 147: this, too, independently of the time employed in committees up-stairs both on public and private business. The number of public acts passed in the last session was 154. Here there is an immense amount of business transacted on the whole to the satisfaction of the public, without any extensive change in the forms and order of proceedings.

Your Committee suggest that, except for the purpose of bringing some important debate to a conclusion, the House should not sit more than nine hours out of the twenty-four on days when the House meets in the evening, and not more than eleven hours when the House sits both in the morning and evening. Your Committee believe that this object would be best secured by a refusal to commence the discussion of opposed business after one o'clock in the morning.

It is necessary, however, to be watchful, and to guard against the inroad of new causes of delay. A practice has arisen of putting questions to ministers on notice, when no motion is before the House; and these questions, and the answers to them, are confined within narrow limits, intended to be precautions against irregular debate. There is convenience in this course; but to prevent this license degenerating into abuse, it is most important that both the questions and answers should be as concise as possible, and not sustained by reasoning, which might give rise to debate. Recourse on these occasions has been sometimes had to the expedient of moving the adjournment of the House for the express purpose of opening debate. This proceeding is to be regarded with the greatest jealousy. It

is in reality an abuse of one of the forms of the House, with the avowed intent of virtually breaking its essential rules. Your Committee have come to the conclusion that this evil has not reached the point where special interference by a new standing order would be expedient. They are disposed still to rely on the forbearance of members in the use of forms which respect for ancient usage leaves unaltered; and the marked disapprobation of a large majority of the House may check the growth of so objectionable practice.

Your Committee, like preceding committees on the subject, have passed in review many suggested alterations, but like them have come to the conclusion that the old rules and orders, when carefully considered and narrowly investigated, are found to be the safeguard of freedom of debate, and a sure defence against the oppression of overpowering majorities. Extreme caution, therefore, in recommending or introducing changes is dictated by prudence. These rules and orders are the fruit of long experience: a day may break down the prescription of centuries. It is easy to destroy; it is difficult to reconstruct. But if changes be thus dangerous, and if the excellence of the existing rules be thus constantly recognized, it is the first duty of the House to maintain these rules inviolate, and to resist every attempt to encroach on them. The Speaker is their appointed guardian: he is entitled to the unanimous support of the House in his efforts to enforce them. Common consent is the best security for their maintenance. Order is their sole object; and without order, freedom of debate and prompt despatch of business cannot long exist.

It remains only to give a summary of the recommendations adopted by your Committee. They are four in number, and are as follows:—

1. That the committees of supply and ways and means may be fixed for every day on which the House shall meet for despatch of public business.
2. That on Friday, throughout the session, orders of the day shall have precedence of notices of motions, the right being reserved to her Majesty's ministers of placing Government orders on the head of the list.
3. That by standing order, the House at its rising on Friday, do stand adjourned to the following Monday without question put, unless the House should otherwise resolve; provided that, while the committee of supply and of ways and means are open, the first order of the day on Friday shall be either supply or ways and means, and that on that order being read, the motion shall be made, "That the Speaker do leave the chair."
4. That when a public bill has been committed to a select committee, and reported to the House, the bill, as amended, shall be appointed for consideration on a future day; when, unless the House shall order the bill generally, or specially in respect of any particular clause or clauses thereof, to be re-committed to a committee of the whole House, the bill, after the consideration of the report, may be ordered to be read a third time.

CENSUS OF ENGLAND AND WALES.

Tables of the Population and Houses enumerated in England and Wales, and in the Islands in the British Seas on April 8, 1861.

THE population enumerated on April 8, 1861, exclusive of the army, navy, and merchant seamen abroad, but including the part of the army in England and the Channel Islands; also the navy, merchant seamen, and others, on board vessels in the ports, rivers, and creeks, was, in England and Wales, 20,061,725; in the Islands in the British seas, 143,779: total, 20,205,504; of whom 9,758,852 in England and Wales, and 66,394 in the Islands, total 9,825,246, were males; and 10,302,873 in England and Wales, and 77,385 in the Islands, total 10,380,258, were females. In 1861 there were

[263]

3,745,463 inhabited houses, against 3,278,039 on the 31st March, 1851, showing an increase of 467,424; and the population was 20,061,725, against 17,927,609 in 1851, showing an increase of 2,134,116. From 1801 to 1861 the population was as follows:—1801, 9,156,171; 1811, 10,454,529. Increase in the decennium 1,298,358, or 14 per cent. 1821, 12,172,664. Increase since 1811, 1,718,135, or 16 per cent. 1831, 14,051,986. Increase since 1821, 1,879,322, or 15 per cent. 1841, 16,035,198. Increase since 1831, 1,983,212, or 14 per cent. In 1851, 18,054,170. Increase since 1841, 2,018,972, or 13 per cent. In 1861, 20,223,746. Increase, 2,169,576, or 12 per cent. The number of inhabited houses was in 1801, 1,575,923. In 1811, 1,797,504. In 1821, 2,088,156. In 1831, 2,481,544. In 1841, 2,943,945. In 1851, 3,278,039; and in 1861, 3,745,463.

HOUSES and POPULATION enumerated in the COUNTIES (proper), April 8, 1861.

—	Area in Statute Acres.	Inhabited Houses.	No. of Persons.	Increase, since 1851.	Decrease, since 1851.
England and Wales ...	37,324,915	3,745,463	20,061,725	2,134,116	—
ENGLAND.					
Bedford ...	295,582	27,419	135,265	10,787	—
Berks ...	451,040	35,880	176,103	6,050	—
Buckingham ...	466,932	34,680	166,597	2,874	—
Cambridge ...	523,861	37,677	175,950	—	9,455
Chester ...	707,078	97,952	505,153	49,428	—
Cornwall ...	873,600	73,243	369,323	13,765	—
Cumberland ...	1,001,273	40,579	205,293	9,801	—
Derby ...	658,803	69,404	339,377	43,293	—
Devon ...	1,657,180	101,406	584,531	17,433	—
Dorset ...	632,025	37,745	188,651	4,444	—
Durham ...	622,476	84,877	509,018	118,021	—
Essex ...	1,060,549	81,220	404,644	35,346	—
Gloucester ...	805,102	93,900	485,502	26,697	—
Hereford ...	534,823	25,371	123,659	8,170	—
Hertford ...	391,141	34,899	173,294	5,996	—
Huntingdon ...	230,865	13,733	64,297	114	—
Kent ...	1,041,479	126,246	733,675	117,909	—
Lancaster ...	1,219,221	439,634	2,428,744	397,508	—
Leicester ...	514,164	51,909	237,402	7,094	—
Lincoln ...	1,776,738	86,688	411,997	4,775	—
Middlesex ...	180,168	270,831	2,205,771	319,195	—
Monmouth ...	368,399	33,101	174,670	17,252	—
Norfolk ...	1,354,301	96,951	435,422	—	7,292
Northampton ...	630,358	48,547	227,727	15,347	—
Northumberland ...	1,249,299	55,900	343,028	39,460	—
Nottingham ...	526,076	62,557	293,784	23,357	—
Oxford ...	472,887	36,309	172,266	1,827	—
Rutland ...	95,805	4,652	21,859	—	1,124
Salop ...	826,055	48,155	240,876	11,535	—
Somerset ...	1,047,220	87,561	444,725	809	—
Southampton ...	1,070,216	86,494	481,495	76,125	—
Stafford ...	728,468	147,244	746,584	137,868	—
Suffolk ...	947,681	73,067	336,271	—	964
Surrey ...	478,792	130,563	830,685	147,603	—
Sussex ...	934,851	65,471	363,648	26,804	—
Warwick ...	563,946	116,405	561,728	86,715	—
Westmorland ...	485,432	11,809	60,809	2,522	—
Wilts ...	865,092	53,181	249,455	—	4,778
Worcester ...	472,165	62,893	307,601	30,675	—
York (<i>East Riding</i>)...	768,419	49,385	240,359	19,376	—
" (<i>City</i>) ...	2,720	8,243	40,377	4,074	—
" (<i>North Riding</i>)...	1,350,121	50,306	244,804	29,590	—
" (<i>West Riding</i>)...	1,708,026	316,061	1,507,511	182,016	—

—	Area in Statute Acres.	Inhabited Houses.	No. of Persons.	Increase, since 1851.	Decrease, since 1851.
WALES.					
Anglesey ...	193,453	12,361	54,546	—	2,781
Brecon ...	460,158	12,929	61,627	153	—
Cardigan ...	443,387	15,731	72,255	1,459	—
Carmarthen ...	606,331	23,106	111,757	1,125	—
Carnarvon ...	370,273	20,261	95,668	7,798	—
Denbigh ...	386,052	21,386	100,862	8,279	—
Flint ...	184,905	15,146	69,870	1,714	—
Glamorgan ...	547,494	59,356	317,751	85,902	—
Merioneth ...	385,291	8,499	38,888	45	—
Montgomery ...	483,323	13,518	67,075	—	260
Pembroke ...	401,691	19,416	96,093	1,953	—
Radnor ...	272,128	4,706	25,403	687	—

POPULATION in 1851 and 1861, ascertained Increase or Decrease in the interval, and Natural Increase or Excess of REGISTERED BIRTHS over DEATHS in the Ten Years 1851-60, in Eleven Divisions.

—	POPULATION ENUMERATED.		Ascertained Increase in the interval between 1851 and 1861.	Natural Increase or Excess of registered Births over registered Deaths in the Ten Years 1851-60.
	1851.	1861.		
ENGLAND and WALES.	17,927,609	20,061,725	2,134,116	2,260,576
DIVISIONS.				
1. London ...	2,362,236	2,803,034	440,798	253,989
2. South Eastern (Surrey and Kent [extra - metropolitan], Sussex, Hants, Berks) ...	1,628,416	1,846,876	218,460	196,992
3. South Midland (Middlesex [extra- metropolitan], Herts, Bucks, Ox- ford, Northampton, Hunts, Beds, Cambridge) ...	1,234,332	1,295,375	61,043	155,742
4. Eastern (Essex, Suffolk, Norfolk)...	1,113,982	1,142,202	28,220	129,726
5. South Western (Wilts, Dorset, Devon, Cornwall, Somerset) ...	1,803,261	1,835,551	32,290	200,673
6. West Midland (Gloucester, Here- ford, Salop, Stafford, Worcester, Warwick) ...	2,136,573	2,436,137	299,564	298,980
7. North Midland (Leicester, Rutland, Lincoln, Nottingham, Derby) ...	1,215,501	1,288,718	73,217	161,763
8. North Western (Cheshire and Lan- cashire) ...	2,488,438	2,934,722	446,284	308,022
9. York (Yorkshire) ...	1,789,047	2,015,329	226,282	256,117
10. Northern (Durham, Northumber- land, Cumberland, Westmorland)	969,126	1,151,281	182,155	152,694
11. Welsh (Monmouthshire and Wales)	1,186,697	1,312,500	125,803	145,878

POPULATION in the PRINCIPAL CITIES and BOROUGHs having defined
Municipal or Parliamentary limits, 1851 and 1861.

City or Borough.	Popula- tion in 1851.	Popula- tion in 1861.	City or Borough.	Popula- tion in 1851.	Popula- tion in 1861.
London within the limits of the Metropolis Local Government Act.	2,362,236	2,803,034	Chichester ... M. & P.	8,662	8,040
Abingdon ... M. & P.	5,954	5,691	Chippenham ... M.	1,707	1,603
Andover ... M.	5,187	5,221	Chipping Wy- ... P.	6,283	7,075
Arundel ... M. & P.	5,395	5,430	combe ... M.	3,588	4,222
Ashburton ... P.	2,748	2,488	Christchurch ... P.	7,179	8,375
Ashton-under- ... M.	3,432	3,062	Cirencester ... P.	7,475	9,386
Lyne ... M.	30,676	34,894	Clitheroe ... M.	6,096	6,334
Banbury ... P.	29,791	33,925	Cliitheroe ... P.	7,244	7,000
Bangor ... M.	4,026	4,055	Cockermouth ... P.	11,480	10,864
Barnstaple ... M. & P.	8,715	10,194	Colchester ... M. & P.	7,275	7,056
Basingstoke ... M.	6,338	6,795	Congleton ... M.	19,443	23,815
Bath ... M. & P.	11,371	10,738	Coventry ... M.	10,520	12,338
Beccles ... M.	4,263	4,664	Coventry ... P.	36,208	40,937
Beccles ... M. & P.	54,240	52,528	Dartmouth ... M. & P.	36,812	41,647
Bedford ... M.	4,398	4,266	Dartmouth ... P.	4,508	4,443
Bedford ... M. & P.	11,693	13,412	Daventry ... M.	4,430	4,124
Berwick-on-Tweed M. & P.	15,094	13,254	Deal ... M.	7,067	7,531
Beverly ... M.	8,915	9,654	Denbigh ... M.	5,498	5,946
Bewdley ... P.	10,058	10,901	Derby ... M. & P.	40,609	43,091
Bideford ... M.	3,124	2,905	Devizes ... M. & P.	6,554	6,639
Birmingham ... M. & P.	7,318	6,786	Devonport ... P.	38,180	50,504
Blackburn ... M. & P.	5,775	5,851	Doncaster ... M.	50,159	64,798
Blackburn ... M. & P.	232,841	295,955	Dorchester ... M. & P.	12,052	16,430
Bodmin ... M.	46,536	63,125	Dorchester ... P.	6,394	6,823
Bodmin ... P.	4,327	4,466	Dover ... M. & P.	22,244	24,970
Bolton ... M. & P.	6,337	6,381	Droitwich ... M.	3,125	3,123
Bolton ... M. & P.	61,171	70,396	Droitwich ... P.	7,096	6,540
Boston ... M.	14,733	13,995	Dudley ... P.	37,962	44,975
Boston ... P.	17,518	17,885	Durham ... M. & P.	13,188	13,743
Bradford ... M. & P.	103,778	106,218	Evesham ... M. & P.	4,605	4,680
Brecknock ... M.	5,673	5,234	Exeter ... M.	32,818	33,737
Bridgnorth ... P.	6,070	5,517	Exeter ... P.	40,688	41,791
Bridgnorth ... M.	6,173	6,569	Eye ... M.	2,587	2,430
Bridgwater ... M. & P.	7,610	7,892	Eye ... P.	7,531	7,039
Bridport ... M. & P.	10,317	11,361	Falmouth † ... M.	4,953	5,706
Brighton ... M.	7,566	7,672	Faversham ... M.	4,595	5,891
Brighton ... P.	77,693	87,311	Finsbury ... P.	323,772	386,844
Bristol ... M. & P.	69,673	87,311	Folkestone ... M.	6,726	8,528
Buckingham ... M.	137,328	154,093	Frome ... P.	10,148	9,523
Bury ... P.	4,020	3,847	Gateshead ... M. & P.	23,568	33,589
Bury St. Edmunds M. & P.	8,069	7,625	Gloucester ... M. & P.	17,572	16,320
Calne ... M.	31,262	37,564	Grantham ... M.	5,375	4,954
Cambridge ... M. & P.	13,900	13,316	Grantham ... P.	10,873	11,116
Canterbury ... M. & P.	2,544	2,494	Gravesend ... M.	16,633	18,776
Cardiff ... M.	5,195	5,151	Great Grimsby ... M.	8,860	11,067
Cardiff ... M. & P.	27,815	26,351	Great Grimsby ... P.	12,263	15,013
Carlisle ... M.	18,398	21,323	Great Marlow ... P.	6,523	6,505
Carlisle ... M. & P.	18,351	32,421	Great Yarmouth... M. & P.	30,879	34,803
Carmarthen ... M.	26,310	29,436	Greenwich ... P.	105,784	139,286
Carmarthen ... M.	10,524	9,992	Guildford ... M. & P.	6,740	8,032
Carnarvon ... M.	8,674	8,530	Halifax ... M. & P.	33,582	37,015
Chatham ... P.	28,424	36,177	Hartlepool ... M.	9,503	12,205
Cheltenham ... P.	35,051	39,590	Harwich ... M. & P.	4,451	5,062
Chester ... M. & P.	27,766	31,101	Hastings ... M.	16,966	23,098
Chesterfield ... M.	7,101	9,835	Hastings ... P.	17,011	23,103
			Helston ... M.	3,355	3,841
			Helston ... P.	7,328	8,657

* Brighton had not received a Charter of Incorporation in 1851.

† The numbers for the Parliamentary Borough of Falmouth and Penryn could not be obtained for this return.

City or Borough.	Popula- tion in 1851.	Popula- tion in 1861.	City or Borough.	Popula- tion in 1851.	Popula- tion in 1861.
Hereford ... M. & P.	12,108	15,625	Newport (Mon- month) ... M. & P.	19,323	23,248
Hertford ... M. & P.	6,605	6,769	Northallerton ... P.	4,995	4,755
Holyhead ... P.	5,622	6,190	Northampton ... M. & P.	26,657	32,813
Honiton ... M. & P.	3,427	3,301	Norwich ... M. & P.	68,195	74,414
Horsham ... P.	5,947	6,747	Nottingham ... M. & P.	57,407	74,531
Huddersfield ... P.	30,880	34,874	Oldham ... M.	52,820	72,334
Hull ... M. & P.	84,690	98,994	... P.	72,357	94,337
Huntingdon ... M.	3,882	3,816	Oswestry ... M.	4,817	5,414
... P.	6,219	6,254	Oxford ... M. & P.	27,843	27,561
Hythe ... P.	2,857	2,998	Pembroke ... M.	10,107	15,051
... P.	13,164	21,372	Penzance ... M.	9,214	9,414
Ipwich ... M. & P.	32,914	37,949	Peterborough ... P.	8,672	11,732
Kendal ... M. & P.	11,829	12,028	Petersfield ... P.	5,550	5,655
Kidderminster ... M. & P.	18,462	18,398	Plymouth ... M. & P.	52,221	62,823
King's Lynn ... M. & P.	19,355	16,071	Pontefract ... M.	5,106	5,340
Kingston - on - Thames ... M.	6,279	9,114	... P.	11,515	11,678
Knareborough ... P.	5,536	5,404	Poole ... M. & P.	9,255	9,745
Lambeth ... P.	251,345	298,032	Portsmouth ... M. & P.	72,096	94,546
Lancaster ... M.	14,604	14,478	Preston ... M. & P.	69,542	82,961
... P.	16,168	15,996	Reading ... M. & P.	21,456	24,965
Launceston ... M.	3,397	2,773	Reigate ... P.	4,927	9,975
... P.	6,005	5,139	Richmond ... M.	4,106	4,290
Leeds ... M. & P.	172,270	207,153	... P.	4,969	5,134
Leicester ... M. & P.	60,584	68,052	Ripon ... M. & P.	6,080	6,172
Leominster ... M. & P.	5,214	5,660	Rochdale ... P.	29,195	38,164
Lewes ... P.	9,533	9,709	Rochester ... M. & P.	14,938	16,672
Lichfield ... M. & P.	7,012	6,872	Rye ... M.	4,071	3,794
Lincoln ... M. & P.	17,536	20,995	... P.	8,541	8,202
Liskeard ... M.	4,386	4,689	Saffron Walden ... M.	5,911	5,474
... P.	6,204	6,704	St. Albans ... M.	7,000	7,675
Liverpool ... M. & P.	375,955	443,874	... M.	6,525	7,019
London (City) ... M. & P.	127,869	112,247	St. Ives ... P.	9,872	10,354
Louth ... M.	10,467	10,568	... M.	63,850	102,414*
Ludlow ... M.	4,691	5,178	... P.	85,108	102,414
... P.	5,376	6,034	Salisbury ... M. & P.	11,657	11,833
Lyme Regis ... M.	2,661	2,413	Sandwich ... M.	2,966	2,893
... P.	3,516	3,206	Sandwich and Deal ... P.	12,710	13,701
Lymington ... M.	2,651	2,416	Scarborough ... M. & P.	12,915	18,380
... P.	5,282	5,152	Shaftesbury ... P.	9,404	8,987
Macclesfield ... M. & P.	39,048	36,095	Sheffield ... M. & P.	135,310	185,157
Maidstone ... M.	20,740	22,984	Shrewsbury ... M. & P.	19,681	22,055
... P.	20,801	23,026	Southampton ... M. & P.	35,305	46,970
Maldon ... M.	4,558	4,798	South Molton ... M.	4,482	3,830
... P.	5,888	6,274	South Shields ... M. & P.	28,974	35,223
Malmesbury ... P.	6,998	6,883	Southwark ... P.	172,863	193,443
Malton ... P.	7,661	8,072	Stafford ... M. & P.	11,829	12,487
Manchester ... M.	303,382	338,346	Stamford ... M. & P.	8,933	8,044
... P.	316,213	357,604	Stockport ... M. & P.	53,835	54,681
Marlborough ... M.	3,908	3,684	Stoke-upon-Trent ... P.	84,027	101,302
... P.	5,135	4,893	Stratford - on - Avon ... M.	3,372	3,672
Marylebone ... P.	370,957	436,298	Stroud ... P.	36,535	35,513
Merthyr Tydfil ... P.	63,080	83,844	Sudbury ... M.	6,043	6,878
Morpeth ... P.	10,012	13,796	Sunderland ... M.	63,897	80,324
Newark ... M. & P.	11,330	11,562	... P.	67,394	85,748
Newbury ... M.	6,574	6,161	Swansea ... M.	31,461	42,581
Newcastle - under- Lyme ... M. & P.	10,569	12,938	Tamworth ... M.	4,059	4,326
Newcastle-on- Tyne ... M. & P.	87,784	109,291	... P.	8,655	10,202
Newport (Isle of Wight) ... M. & P.	8,047	7,934	Taunton ... P.	14,176	14,660
			Tavistock ... P.	8,086	8,804
			Tewkesbury ... M. & P.	5,878	5,876

* Since the Census of 1851 the Municipal Borough of Salford has been enlarged, and its boundaries are now the same as those of the Parliamentary Borough.

City or Borough.	Popula- tion in 1851.	Popula- tion in 1861.	City or Borough.	Popula- tion in 1851.	Popula- tion in 1861.
Thetford ... M. & P.	4,075	4,208	Westbury ... P.	7,029	6,495
Thirak ... P.	5,319	5,351	Westminster ... P.	241,611	253,985
Tiverton ... M. & P.	11,144	10,444	Weymouth and } M. & P.	9,458	11,383
Totnes ... M. & P.	4,419	3,993	Melcombe Regis }		
Tower Hamlets ... P.	539,111	647,585	Whitby ... P.	10,989	12,054
Truro ... M. & P.	10,733	11,336	Whitehaven ... P.	18,916	18,842
Tynemouth ... M. & P.	29,170	33,991	Wigan ... M. & P.	31,941	37,657
Wakefield ... { M.	22,065	23,181	Wilton ... P.	8,607	8,674
Wallingford ... { P.	22,057	23,199	Winchester ... M. & P.	13,704	14,784
Walsall ... M. & P.	25,680	37,762	Windsor ... M. & P.	9,596	9,827
Wareham ... P.	7,218	6,977	Wisbeach... M.	10,594	9,275
Warrington ... { M.	22,894	25,953	Wolverhampton... { M.	49,985	60,858
Warwick... M. & P.	10,973	10,589	Woodstock ... P.	119,748	147,646
Wells ... M. & P.	4,736	4,648	Worcester ... M. & P.	7,983	7,820
			Worcester ... M. & P.	27,528	31,123
			York ... { M.	36,303	40,377
				40,359	45,326

POPULATION in the ISLANDS in the BRITISH SEAS.

The total population in the Islands in the British Sea was, in 1821, 89,508; in 1831, 103,710; in 1841, 124,040; in 1851, 143,126; and in 1861, 143,779.

	1851.	1861.
Isle of Man ...	52,387	52,339
Island of Jersey ...	57,020	56,078
" Guernsey (with Herm and Jethou) ...	29,806	29,846
" Alderney ...	3,333	4,933
" Sark ...	580	583

CENSUS OF IRELAND FOR 1861.

THE total population enumerated on the 8th of April, 1861, as obtained from the enumerators' abstracts, amounted to 5,764,543, the sexes being 2,804,961 males and 2,959,582 females, or 787,842 less than that returned for the 31st of March, 1851, being a decrease of 12·02 per cent. during the last ten years. These numbers did not include the men of the army and navy serving in Ireland on the night of the 7th of April, but include the wives and families of such persons, and also soldiers on furlough.

The following is the provincial summary of the three last enumerations:—

Provinces.	Number of Persons in						
	1841.	1851.	Decrease in 1851.		1861.	Decrease in 1861.	
			Persons.	Rate per cent.		Persons.	Rate per cent.
Leinster ...	1,973,731	1,672,738	300,993	15·25	1,439,596	233,142	13·94
Munster ...	2,396,161	1,857,736	538,425	22·47	1,503,200	354,536	19·08
Ulster ...	2,386,373	2,011,880	374,493	15·69	1,910,408	101,472	5·04
Connaught ...	1,418,859	1,010,031	408,828	28·81	911,339	98,692	9·77
Total of Ireland	8,175,124	6,552,385	1,622,739	19·85	5,764,543	787,842	12·02

The present decrease is most apparent in the city of Kilkenny and town of Galway, and the counties of Tipperary, Clare, Meath, Kilkenny, King's, Wexford, Waterford, and Cork. The only localities in which an increase of population has taken place are Dublin county (now divided into its own proper civic and rural district and the suburban circle of population round the metropolis), and the towns of Carrickfergus and Belfast, in which latter locality it amounts to 18,941, or 18·88 per cent. on the returns for 1851.

From the returns of the Emigration Commissioners we learn that of the 2,249,355 emigrants who sailed from ports in the United Kingdom between the 31st of March, 1851, and the 8th of April last, 1,230,986 were Irish; and from the returns obtained by the Registrar-General for Ireland through the constabulary agents at Irish ports, during the like period, we perceive that as many as 1,174,179 persons were set down as permanent emigrants. To this emigration may chiefly be attributed the decrease of the population during a period when the country was remarkably free from any outbreak of famine, pestilence, or of the other social calamities which have occasionally retarded the growth of population in this and other countries. It must also be remembered that the effects of the disastrous period of famine and pestilence which commenced with the potato blight of 1846-7 had extended over the first few years of the decade upon which it is now our province to report, and that there were no less than 250,611 paupers in the Irish workhouses, and 47,019 persons in hospital, of whom 4,545 were not workhouse inmates at the time of taking the census in 1851, while there were but 50,570 persons in the Irish workhouses the day before the recent census was taken.

The census also shows the result of the inquiry into the religious profession of the population. This is the first occasion on which this subject has formed a portion of the decennial census; and when we state that in only fifteen instances have complaints or objections to the enumerators' returns been made to the commissioners, the fact is, to a certain extent, a proof of the probable veracity of these returns, as well as of the willingness of the people and the clergy of all denominations to afford the utmost facility for arriving at the truth. In every instance in which a question arose as to religion, we caused the enumerator to make a personal inquiry of the individual concerned.

The following is the provincial summary, arranged numerically, of the results of this portion of the inquiry:—

Provinces.	Religious Persuasions.				
	Roman Catholics.	Established Church.	Protestant Dissenters.	All other Persuasions.	Jews.
Leinster	1,246,253	171,334	19,889	1,954	266
Munster	1,416,171	76,692	9,558	778	1
Ulster	963,687	390,130	551,095	5,442	54
Connaught	864,472	40,605	6,021	240	1
Total	4,490,583	678,661	586,563	8,414	322

From this table we learn that on the night of the 7th of April, 1861, those of the Roman Catholic Church amounted to 4,490,583; those of the

Established Church to 678,661; and Protestant Dissenters to 586,563, amongst whom those of the Presbyterian Church numbered 528,992; Methodists, 44,532; Independents, 5,062; Baptists, 4,165; and the Society of Friends, 3,812.

Those classed under the head of "all other persuasions," amounting to 8,414, were chiefly persons denominating themselves "Protestant Dissenters" (unspecified), "Reformed Presbyterians," "Separatists," "Christian Brethren," "Christians," "Covenanters," "Unitarians," "Seceders," also members of the Moravian Church, and such travellers, temporary lodgers, and mendicants (presumed to be Christian) as to whom the enumerators or the persons who filled the householders' schedules were unable to obtain the necessary information. The detailed particulars respecting the class enumerated under this head will be given at a future period. The number of Jews was 322.

The number by which the inhabited houses had decreased for the ten years ending 31st March, 1851, was 282,616, or 21·27 per cent. less than those recorded on the 6th June, 1841: while by the present inquiry we learn that the number of inhabited houses is 993,233, and the decrease since 1851 is only 52,990, or 5·08 per cent. The number of uninhabited houses in 1851 was 65,263, while in 1861 an examination of the same item shows but 39,972. In 1841 there were 3,313 houses in process of building, in 1851 only 1,868, and in 1861, 3,047. Taking the inhabited houses in 1841 there were 1·11 families to each house; in 1851, 1·15 families; and in 1861, 1·14. The localities in which the house accommodation has decreased most are the counties of Tipperary, Kilkenny, Meath, King's, and Queen's, in which also the population has very largely decreased; while there has been an increase of inhabited houses in the towns of Belfast and Carrickfergus, the county of Dublin (chiefly in the suburban districts of the metropolis), the cities of Cork, Dublin, Waterford, and Limerick, and the counties of Antrim, Armagh, Londonderry, and Sligo.

The decrease in the number of families between 1841 and 1851 was 268,468, or 18·23 per cent. In 1861 the number of families returned by the enumerators is 1,129,218 showing a decrease of 75,101, or 6·24 per cent. on the returns made for 1851. This decrease is most apparent in the counties of Limerick, Queen's, Tipperary, Kilkenny, King's, and Clare. It has been least in the province of Ulster, where it only amounts to 2,017, or 0·53 per cent. An increase in the number of families has taken place in the towns of Belfast and Carrickfergus, the city of Dublin, and the counties of Dublin, Antrim, Armagh, Londonderry, and Sligo.

The average number of persons to a family was 5·54 in the year 1841, in 1851 it was 5·44, and in 1861 it is 5·10. In the metropolitan city, while the population has decreased by 8,636 persons the number of inhabited houses has increased by 514, and the proportion of persons constituting a family has, in proportion, decreased from 4·51 in the former to 4·26 in the latter period. In the town of Belfast the average number of persons to a family is 4·79, and in the rural district of Donegal 5·31.

CENSUS OF IRELAND FOR 1861.

211

The NUMBER of INHABITANTS in each Province, County, City, and certain Corporate Towns, in 1861, with the Increase or Decrease between 1841 and 1851, and between 1851 and 1861.

Provinces, Counties, Cities, and Towns.	Total. 1861.	Increase in 1851.		Decrease in 1851.		Increase in 1861.		Decrease in 1861.	
		Number.	Rate per cent.	Number.	Rate per cent.	Number.	Rate per cent.	Number.	Rate per cent.
Province of LEINSTER.									
Carlow, County	57,232	18,150	21.06	10,846	18.93
Drogheda, Town	14,730	586	3.60	2,117	12.56
Dublin, City, Municipal	249,733	25,643	11.02	8,686	3.34
" Suburbs	46,231	6,731	4.80	5,511	3.75
Dublin, County	108,066	18,765	16.39	10,793	11.27
Kildare	84,930	5,894	29.51
Kilkenny, City	14,081	904	4.74	23,297	21.11
" County	109,476	44,576	24.31	23,585	21.04
King's	88,491	34,781	23.68	10,766	13.06
Longford	71,592	23,143	26.70	15,675	17.26
Louth	75,140	21,164	18.90	20,129	21.41
Meath	110,609	43,080	22.43	20,914	18.73
Queen's	90,750	42,266	27.46	20,551	18.45
Westmeath	90,856	29,893	21.16	26,564	20.29
Wexford	143,594	21,875	10.83	12,886	13.02
Wicklow	86,093	27,164	21.53
Total of Leinster	1,439,596	300,993	15.25	233,143	13.94
Province of MUNSTER.									
Clare, County	166,275	73,954	25.23	46,165	21.73
Cork, City	78,892	5,012	6.21	6,840	7.98
" County, E. R.	280,443	209,822	27.13	71,372	20.29
" " W. R.	178,161	33,600	15.27
Kerry	201,988	55,696	18.98	23,266	15.23
Limerick, City	44,636	5,067	10.45	8,892	16.50
" County	170,982	72,954	25.90	37,701	18.06
Tipperary	108,466	103,986	23.87	39,743	26.23
" N. R.	139,030	45,328	24.69
" S. R.	23,220	2,061	8.96	2,077	8.21
Waterford, City	111,116	24,223	19.79	27,622	19.91
" County
Total of Munster	1,502,300	588,425	22.47	354,536	19.08
Province of ULSTER.									
Antrim, County	247,414	24,805	8.98	3,969	1.58
Armagh	189,282	26,309	15.63	6,702	3.43
Belfast, Town	119,242	24,993	20.19	18,941	18.88
Carrickfergus, County and Town	9,388	859	9.16	678	10.31
Cavan	153,972	69,094	28.42	20,092	11.54
Donegal	236,859	41,290	18.93	18,299	7.17
Down	299,866	40,629	11.24	20,951	6.53
Fermanagh	105,372	40,434	25.64	10,675	9.19
Londonderry	184,137	20,152	13.57	7,885	4.11
Monaghan	126,240	58,619	29.34	15,483	10.92
Tyrone	238,426	57,295	18.21	17,235	6.74
Total of Ulster	1,910,408	374,493	16.69	101,472	5.04
Province of CONNAUGHT.									
Galway, County	254,256	125,026	29.56	43,641	14.65
" Town	16,786	6,512	37.70	7,001	29.42
Leitrim, County	104,618	42,400	27.95	7,392	6.51
Mayo	254,449	114,288	29.41	20,050	7.30
Roscommon, County	156,154	80,185	31.61	17,982	9.26
Sligo	129,079	52,871	28.95	3,486	2.67
Total of Connaught	911,839	408,828	28.81	98,692	9.77
Total of Ireland	5,764,543	1,622,739	19.85	787,849	13.02

The RELIGIOUS PROFESSION in each Province.

Provinces, Counties, Cities, and Towns.	Established Church.	Roman Catholic.	Presbyterians.	All other Persuasions.
Province of LEINSTER.				
Carlow, County	6,241	50,613	107	171
Drogheda, Town	1,023	13,340	211	156
Dublin, City, Municipal	46,923	194,601	4,454	3,756
" " Suburbs	15,248	28,489	1,110	1,384
" " County	19,078	84,524	1,042	1,414
Kildare "	6,832	77,114	581	403
Kilkenny, City	1,084	12,854	85	58
" " County	4,597	104,667	94	118
King's "	8,282	79,306	256	647
Longford "	6,114	64,810	529	139
Louth "	4,975	69,100	908	157
Meath "	6,584	103,489	410	126
Queen's "	9,854	79,959	247	690
Westmeath "	6,309	83,813	323	411
Wexford "	12,840	129,824	283	647
Wicklow "	15,251	69,750	271	821
Total of Leinster	171,234	1,246,253	10,911	11,198
Province of MUNSTER.				
Clare, County	3,371	162,572	235	97
Cork, City	9,574	67,092	825	1,371
" " County, E.R.	16,374	262,587	711	771
" " " W.R.	14,583	162,002	235	1,341
Kerry "	6,211	195,295	252	230
Limerick, City	3,934	39,689	366	637
" " County	5,606	164,878	139	360
Tipperary " N.R.	6,892	100,913	163	498
" " S.R.	4,970	133,324	288	448
Waterford, City	1,912	20,465	236	607
" " County	3,265	107,354	235	262
Total of Munster	76,692	1,416,171	3,685	6,552
Province of ULSTER.				
Antrim, County	45,087	61,220	133,440	7,667
Armagh "	58,643	92,100	30,988	7,651
Belfast, Town	29,242	40,690	43,046	6,264
Carrickfergus, County and Town	1,827	1,052	5,562	958
Cavan "	23,187	123,825	5,536	1,424
Donegal "	29,942	177,560	26,694	2,663
Down "	60,516	97,234	136,013	6,103
Fermanagh "	40,676	59,490	1,857	3,349
Londonderry "	30,871	83,428	66,014	3,824
Monaghan "	17,706	92,714	15,405	485
Tyrone "	52,433	134,374	46,816	4,803
Total of Ulster	390,130	963,687	511,371	45,220
Province of CONNAUGHT.				
Galway, County	7,534	245,950	397	375
" " Town	786	15,554	165	281
Leitrim, County	9,516	93,844	351	904
Mayo "	6,937	246,108	933	471
Roscommon, County	5,227	150,490	252	185
Sligo "	10,605	112,626	927	1,021
Total of Connaught	40,605	864,472	3,025	3,237
Total of Ireland	678,661	4,490,583	528,992	66,307

CENSUS OF IRELAND FOR 1861.

213

The NUMBER of INHABITANTS in each Parliamentary Borough in 1861, with the Increase or Decrease between 1851 and 1861.

Parliamentary Boroughs.	No. of Inhabitants.	Increase in 1861.	Decrease in 1861.	Parliamentary Boroughs.	No. of Inhabitants.	Increase in 1861.	Decrease in 1861.
Armagh ...	8,933	77	...	Brot. forwd.	551,592	1,138	44,004
Athlone ...	6,170	...	1,844	Enniskillen ...	5,701	...	393
Bandon ...	6,322	...	1,620	Galway ...	24,990	...	9,156
Belfast ...	76,491	...	1,863	Kilkenny ...	17,441	...	6,741
Carlow ...	8,967	...	2,620	Kinsale ...	4,624	...	941
Carrickfergus ...	9,398	878	...	Limerick ...	55,234	...	14,327
Casheh ...	5,596	...	3,473	Lisburn ...	9,653	1,980	...
Clonmel ...	11,190	...	4,014	Londonderry ...	20,493	520	...
Coleraine ...	6,308	...	309	Mallow ...	4,824	...	859
Cork ...	101,534	...	12,698	New Ross ...	7,115	...	3,030
Downpatrick ...	4,310	...	544	Newry ...	12,334	...	2,400
Drogheda ...	18,094	...	1,735	Portarlington...	2,679	...	285
Dublin ...	258,328	...	6,924	Sligo ...	13,361	...	1,032
Dundalk ...	10,404	151	...	Tralee ...	10,931	...	2,838
Duncannon ...	3,886	32	...	Waterford ...	29,160	...	3,444
Dungarvan ...	8,614	...	2,968	Wexford ...	12,015	...	848
Ennis ...	7,127	...	3,392	Youghal ...	6,749	...	2,904
Carried forward	551,592	1,138	44,004	General Total	788,866	...	89,564

CENSUS OF SCOTLAND.

The population of Scotland was as follows:—In 1801, 1,608,420; in 1811, 1,805,864; in 1821, 2,091,521; in 1831, 2,364,386; in 1841, 2,620,184; in 1851, 2,888,742; and in 1861, 3,061,251. The decennial increase was as follows:—1801—1811, 197,444, or 12 per cent; 1811—1821, 285,657, or 16 per cent; 1821—1831, 272,865, or 13 per cent.; 1831—1841, 255,798, or 11 per cent.; 1841—1851, 268,558, or 10 per cent.; 1851—1861, 172,509, or 5·9 per cent. -

HOUSES and POPULATION in the Divisions and Civil Counties in 1861.

Divisions and Civil Counties.	Inhabited Houses.	Population.	No. of Children from 5 to 15 attending School.	Number of Rooms with one or more Windows.
Scotland	393,289	3,061,251	456,699	1,694,982
DIVISIONS.				
I. Northern ...	24,159	130,518	16,689	58,449
II. North-Western ...	31,176	168,715	22,709	89,497
III. North-Eastern ...	60,647	367,832	61,689	231,025
IV. East Midland ...	76,238	521,855	84,107	313,920
V. West Midland ...	34,490	241,144	37,103	133,069
VI. South-Western ...	85,021	1,007,925	132,476	473,467
VII. South-Eastern ...	46,371	408,808	65,894	262,214
VIII. Southern ...	35,187	214,454	36,032	133,347
I. NORTHERN.				
1. Shetland ...	5,518	31,678	1,690	9,932
2. Orkney ...	6,261	32,416	4,448	15,428
3. Caithness ...	7,459	41,216	6,550	19,239
4. Sutherland ...	4,921	25,208	4,001	13,850

[273]

Divisions and Civil Counties.	Inhabited Houses.	Population.	No. of Children from 5 to 15 attending School.	Number of Rooms with one or more Windows.
II. NORTH-WESTERN.				
5. Ross and Cromarty ...	14,794	81,280	10,164	42,648
6. Inverness ...	16,382	87,435	12,545	46,849
III. NORTH-EASTERN.				
7. Nairn ...	2,022	10,065	1,474	6,537
8. Elgin ...	8,071	42,692	7,418	30,112
9. Banff ...	11,158	59,234	10,102	35,302
10. Aberdeen ...	32,705	221,380	36,881	137,024
11. Kincardine ...	6,696	34,461	5,814	22,050
IV. EAST MIDLAND.				
12. Forfar ...	23,536	204,365	30,387	112,476
13. Perth ...	22,056	133,511	21,545	92,060
14. Fife ...	26,034	154,555	27,025	92,536
15. Kinross ...	1,641	7,975	1,290	5,576
16. Clackmannan ...	2,971	21,449	3,860	11,272
V. WEST MIDLAND.				
17. Stirling ...	12,196	91,926	14,669	49,378
18. Dumbarton ...	5,871	52,035	6,672	28,547
19. Argyll ...	14,109	80,995	13,325	44,159
20. Bute ...	2,314	16,188	2,437	10,985
VI. SOUTH-WESTERN.				
21. Renfrew ...	11,972	177,407	23,862	87,472
22. Ayr ...	25,868	198,959	29,504	94,728
23. Lanark ...	47,181	631,559	79,110	291,267
VII. SOUTH-EASTERN.				
24. Linlithgow ...	5,502	38,845	6,455	17,697
25. Edinburgh ...	24,208	273,869	43,447	184,047
26. Haddington ...	6,843	37,623	6,348	24,422
27. Berwick ...	6,273	36,614	6,246	22,242
28. Peebles ...	1,979	11,408	1,749	7,475
29. Selkirk ...	1,466	10,449	1,649	6,331
VIII. SOUTHERN.				
30. Roxburgh ...	7,738	54,109	9,121	31,877
31. Dumfries ...	13,198	75,877	13,025	46,174
32. Kirkcudbright ...	7,318	42,430	7,352	30,357
33. Wigtown ...	6,933	42,038	6,534	24,939

HOUSES and POPULATION of Cities and Parliamentary Burghs in 1861.

County.	Parliamentary Burgh.	Inhabited Houses.	Population.	Children at School between 5 and 15.	Number of Rooms with Windows.
Orkney ...	Kirkwall ...	478	3,519	561	2,218
Caithness ...	Wick ...	1,138	7,475	1,247	4,229
Sutherland ...	Dornoch ...	134	647	154	481
Ross and Cromarty.	Cromarty ...	302	1,491	216	1,039
	Dingwall ...	322	2,084	337	1,474
	Fortrose ...	187	928	148	849
	Tain ...	345	1,779	259	1,693
Inverness ...	Inverness ...	1,750	12,499	2,237	8,939
Nairn ...	Nairn ...	629	3,437	572	2,513
Elgin ...	Elgin ...	1,218	7,543	1,423	6,038
	Forres ...	707	3,508	605	2,940
Banff ...	Banff ...	1,259	6,780	1,375	4,503
	Cullen ...	329	1,818	374	1,178

[274]

CENSUS OF SCOTLAND.

215

County.	Parliamentary Burgh.	Inhabited Houses.	Population.	Children at School between 5 and 16.	Number of Rooms with Windows.
Aberdeen ...	Aberdeen ...	5,901	73,794	12,222	47,890
	Inverury ...	364	2,520	522	1,708
	Kintore ...	100	568	114	385
	Peterhead ...	1,012	7,519	1,420	4,466
Kincardine ...	Inverbervie ...	181	952	164	610
Forfar ...	Arbroath ...	1,914	17,591	2,770	10,126
	Brechin ...	773	7,180	1,118	4,037
	Dundee ...	5,285	90,425	11,698	43,034
	Forfar ...	1,110	9,258	1,490	4,398
Perth ...	Montrose ...	1,536	14,563	2,505	9,792
	Culross ...	107	517	107	437
	Perth ...	2,166	25,251	4,131	18,143
Fife ...	Anstruther-Easter	201	1,178	209	881
	Anstruther-Wester	56	367	59	248
	Burntisland ...	342	3,146	642	2,306
	Crail ...	245	1,211	216	958
	Cupar ...	850	5,029	881	3,755
	Dunfermline ...	1,517	13,504	2,213	7,294
	Dysart ...	1,061	8,067	1,247	4,426
	Inverkeithing ...	277	1,819	344	1,162
	Kilrenny ...	272	2,145	395	858
	Kinghorn ...	219	1,426	242	873
	Kirkcaldy ...	953	10,851	1,706	6,734
	Pittenweem ...	281	1,671	335	1,078
	St. Andrews ...	796	5,176	1,061	4,588
	Falkirk ...	995	9,029	1,505	5,085
	Stirling ...	1,388	13,846	2,223	9,367
Dumbarton ...	Dumbarton ...	554	8,253	964	3,926
Argyll ...	Campbeltown ...	764	6,042	1,104	3,966
	Inverary ...	104	971	183	784
	Oban ...	170	1,936	318	1,481
Renfrew ...	Greenock ...	1,846	42,100	5,891	23,266
	Paisley ...	2,689	47,419	6,123	21,774
	Port-Glasgow ...	436	7,214	952	3,849
	Renfrew ...	374	3,228	457	1,464
Ayr ...	Ayr ...	2,091	18,571	2,970	10,530
	Irvine ...	910	7,060	943	3,964
	Kilmarnock ...	1,918	22,614	3,194	9,705
Lanark ...	Airdrie ...	1,361	12,918	1,758	5,214
	Glasgow ...	13,873	394,857	45,746	191,497
	Hamilton ...	1,117	10,686	1,384	5,374
	Lanark ...	667	5,048	710	2,365
	Rutherglen ...	675	8,474	1,010	3,192
Linlithgow ...	Linlithgow ...	352	3,843	582	2,399
	Queensferry ...	144	1,230	171	854
Edinburgh ...	Edinburgh ...	9,820	168,098	25,750	120,573
	Leith ...	2,590	33,530	5,563	20,302
	Musselburgh ...	1,054	7,422	1,300	4,673
	Portobello ...	669	4,366	662	2,578
Haddington ...	Dunbar ...	423	3,511	582	2,450
	Haddington ...	610	3,897	610	2,804
	North Berwick ...	179	1,164	233	1,007
Berwick ...	Lauder ...	206	1,185	250	807
Roxburgh ...	Jedburgh ...	398	3,429	649	2,309
Dumfries ...	Annan ...	631	3,473	622	2,268
	Dumfries ...	1,678	14,024	2,306	9,768
	Lochmaben ...	245	1,194	240	732
	Sanquhar ...	258	1,754	284	859
Kirkcudbright ...	Kirkcudbright ...	414	2,552	539	2,229
	New Galloway ...	100	482	105	354
Wigtown ...	Stranraer ...	827	6,274	983	4,179
	Whithorn ...	279	1,623	312	1,039
	Wigtown ...	395	2,025	401	1,486
Total ...		89,520	1,244,578	176,898	709,584

[275]

CHARITY COMMISSIONERS.

Eighth Report of the Charity Commissioners for England and Wales.

THE following classified list indicates the number and principal objects of the orders which we have had occasion to make under our official seal during the year, in cases not capable of being conveniently disposed of in a less formal manner:—Authorizing applications to Court of Chancery, 75; authorizing applications to county courts, 143; authorizing applications to courts of common law, 4; certifying cases to the Attorney-General, with a view to the institution by him of ex-officio proceedings, 3; prescribing notices for ensuring the publicity of proposed applications to the Court of Chancery for the appointment or removal of trustees or the establishment of schemes, 44; the same of proposed applications to the county courts for the like objects, 111; confirming orders of the county courts, 150; conveying advice to trustees for their protection and indemnity on questions involving their personal responsibility, 85; authorizing sales of charity estates, 100; authorizing exchanges, 5; authorizing building, mining, and other leases of charity estates, 112; authorizing improvements of such estates, and the raising or appropriation of the necessary funds, 31; authorizing the compromise of disputed claims, 23; authorizing transfers of stock or money to the official trustees of charitable funds, 579; for miscellaneous purposes not comprised under any of the foregoing heads, 91—total, 1,556.

The aggregate amount of various stocks held by the official trustees at the close of the year 1859, was 593,729*l.* 17*s.* 9*d.*, and a detailed statement of the proportions of that amount due to all the very numerous charities to which it belonged was appended to our last report. During the past year this fund has been increased by the large amount of 201,035*l.* 19*s.* 7*d.* in the various stocks; besides a sum of 22,526*l.* 1*s.* 10*d.*, cash paid to the account of the official trustees, and not, therefore, invested before the end of the year.

We have prepared new schemes, to be submitted to the consideration of Parliament, for the application and management of the following charities, namely:—1. Certain charities in the town of Burford, in the county of Oxford; 2. The hospital of the Blessed Trinity at Guildford; 3. Certain municipal charities in the borough of Reading; and 4. The hospital of Lady Katherine Leveson, at Temple Balsall, in the county of Warwick.

We have continued to use all occasions of impressing upon the trustees of charitable foundations the duty of regularly transmitting their annual accounts to our office. We have received 13,929 such accounts during the past year against 13,343 in the previous year.

The particulars of 457 newly created or hitherto unreported charities ascertained during the year are in process of being registered in our office, in addition to those mentioned in our former reports.

By an Act passed at the close of the last session of Parliament the jurisdiction hitherto confined to the judicial courts of making orders for the appointment and removal of trustees, and the establishment of schemes for the regulation of endowed charities, has been extended, with certain limitations, to our board, and we are empowered to make other orders of much importance to the beneficial administration of such charities.

MEXICO.

Correspondence respecting British Claims on Mexico.

On the 24th August, 1860, Lord John Russell wrote to Mr. Matthew, complaining of the outrages committed in Mexico on British subjects, and stated that after serious consideration, her Majesty's Government had come to the conclusion that they would best consult their own dignity and the rights of British subjects, and perhaps even the interests of the Mexicans themselves, by withdrawing her Majesty's legation from the capital of the republic. Lord John Russell said, that her Majesty's Government were anxious to preserve a strict neutrality between the two contending factions, and that they would not consent to re-open relations with Mexico, unless they saw established, either a government possessed of some chance of stability, or a provisional arrangement which may appear likely to lead to such a result. In another letter, dated the 11th October, 1860, Lord John Russell stated, that it was proposed by the authorities of Vera Cruz, to suspend for some months the payment of the assignments from the import duties at the Custom-house belonging to the English creditors, but that her Majesty's Government could not entertain such a proposition.

On the 29th October, 1860, Lord John Russell received from Mr. Matthew information of the seizure of the conducta of silver proceeding from Guanajuato and San Luis Potosi to Tampico for embarkation, in which various British subjects had money to the amount of between 80,000*l.* to 100,000*l.* sterling. On the same day, Lord John Russell received another letter from Mr. Matthew, stating that by the energetic efforts of Mr. Glenner, he had succeeded in recovering the sum of 400,000 dollars, being about the presumed amount of British property in the "conducta," but that he had been unable to obtain the same act of justice to other foreigners.

On the 1st January, 1861, Lord John Russell received a letter from Mr. Matthew from Jalapa, informing him that by order of General Miramon and his Ministers, the residence lately occupied by her Majesty's legation was entered by force, and 660,000 dollars, the property of English bondholders, was seized and carried off. The entry in the house was made on the plea of a search for arms, but the money was taken for professed security in case of a disturbance of public order in the city. The British Consul protested, declaring that the funds, which were in a room of the store, were under the protection and shelter of her Britannic Majesty's legation; that, therefore, he opposed any abstraction or other measure, and would hold responsible his Excellency the President, and all other persons who might aid in the execution of any act of violence, including in this responsibility those who may have given the orders.

On the 12th January, 1861, Lord John Russell wrote to Mr. Matthew that her Majesty's Government would be prepared to open negotiations with President Juarez, and that if he succeeded in establishing his authority in Mexico and would be ready to acknowledge the debt incurred by the *de facto* Government at Mexico by the act of plunder referred to, as well as acquiesce in the principle of satisfying such other claims of British subjects for spoliation and violence inflicted on them at different times as may be satisfactorily established, her Majesty's Government would be ready to recognize President Juarez as the head of a legal government, and to give him the moral support of Great Britain. But that in any case, her Majesty's

SERIES B.

H

[277]

government would hold the Mexican nation, by whatever government it might happen to be ruled, responsible for the money recently seized at Mexico; and that her Majesty's Government reserved to themselves the right to make any further demands which they might consider necessary for purposes of reparation and redress.

On the 1st February, 1861, Lord John Russell received a letter from Mr. Matthew intimating that the sum of 400,000 dollars, which had been restored of the property lost in the conducta, had again been withdrawn, having been seized at Tampico and deposited in the Mexican Custom-house and detained by the suit of the acting Consul of France. On the same date, 1st February, 1861, Lord John Russell learnt from Mr. Matthew that President Juarez and his government were daily expected, and that better hopes of the future condition of Mexico were entertained.

On the 7th February, Lord John Russell wrote to Mr. Matthew that her Majesty's Government would fain hope that the overthrow of the Government of General Miramon would be followed by the establishment in Mexico of a Government able to maintain order in the country, and willing to fulfil its international engagements. Her Majesty's Government had long urged on successive governments of Mexico the claims of her Majesty's subjects for wrongs and outrages committed on their persons and property; and her Majesty's Government must hold the ruling government of the country, from whatever party it may be drawn, fully responsible for the redress which is due to British subjects. He therefore instructed Mr. Matthew to present to the Mexican Government which should be installed when this despatch reached him, a full statement of British claims, and to require that measures be taken at the earliest moment for their settlement.

On the 28th February, Lord John Russell received a communication from Mr. Matthew that the restoration of the Constitutional Government in the capital had been attended by a violent and impulsive act in the delivery of passports to the Ambassador of her Catholic Majesty, the Pope's Nuncio, the Minister of Guatemala, and the *Chargé d'Affaires* of Ecuador. The following are the letters addressed to the Spanish Ambassador and the Nuncio, giving them orders to depart:—

(Traduction.)

Secrétairerie d'Etat, Ministère des Affaires Etrangères.

Son Excellence M. le Président Intérimaire Constitutionnel ne peut voir en vous qu'un ennemi de son Gouvernement, à cause des efforts que vous avez faits en faveur des usurpateurs rebelles qui ont occupé cette ville pendant ces trois dernières années. Son Excellence ordonne, en conséquence, que vous quittiez cette ville et la République dans le délai strictement nécessaire pour préparer et effectuer votre voyage.

Son Excellence M. le Président respecte et estime l'Espagne autant que les autres nations amies, mais vous ne devez pas, comme individu, continuer à résider dans la République. C'est donc par des considérations qui vous touchent personnellement que M. le Président s'est décidé à prendre cette résolution.

Dieu et Liberté

Mexico, le 12 Janvier, 1861.

A M. Francisco Pacheco.

(Signé)

OCAMPO.

Secrétairerie d'Etat, Ministère des Affaires Etrangères.

Il ne convient d'aucune façon au Gouvernement Constitutionnel de la République que vous y restiez après les sacrifices qu'a coûtés à ce Gouvernement l'établissement de l'ordre légal, après qu'il a été versé tant de sang dans ce pays, et cela par la part scandaleuse que le Clergé a prise dans la guerre civile. Aujourd'hui que l'ordre constitutionnel est rétabli, son Excellence M. le Président vous fait savoir que vous devrez sortir de la République dans le délai strictement nécessaire pour faire vos préparatifs de voyage.

Dieu et Liberté

Mexico, le 12 Janvier, 1861.

A M. Luis Clementi,

Archêvêque de Damas.

(Signé)

OCAMPO.

[278]

On the 28th February, Lord John Russell received a letter from Mr. Matthew that he was unable to get a final settlement of the claim for above 400,000 dollars seized in the conducta at Lagos, and subsequently by Governor Garza at Tampico. He had demanded payment with interest, at the rate of 12 per cent. within sixty-five days, as well as an apology for General Garza's act, and the reprimand of that functionary if he acted without orders. Mr. Matthew enclosed copies of two decrees of President Juarez, one to establish a fund for the payment of all claims, and one for the establishment of religious liberty and a civil marriage act. Upon the promulgation, however, of the last named law, the archbishop issued a decree in direct opposition to the law, and refusing to withdraw it, he and several of the bishops received orders to leave the country.

Decree of President Juarez in favour of Religious Liberty and various Religious Reforms.

Le C. Benito Juarez, président intérimaire constitutionnel des Etats-Unis Mexicains, à tous leurs habitants faisons savoir : Qu'en vertu des amples facultés dont je me trouve investi, j'ai cru devoir décréter ce qui suit :—

1. Les lois protègent l'exercice du culte Catholique et des autres cultes qui s'établiront dans le pays, comme l'expression et le resultat de la liberté religieuse qui, droit naturel de l'homme, n'a et ne peut avoir d'autres limites que les droits des tiers et les exigences de l'ordre public. Dans tout autre cas, l'indépendance entre l'Etat, d'une part, et les croyances et les pratiques religieuses, d'autre part, est et sera parfaite et inviolable. Pour l'application de ces principes, on observera ce qui est déclaré et déterminé par les lois de réforme et par le présent Decret.

2. Une église ou Société religieuse se forme des hommes qui ont volontairement désiré en devenir les membres, en manifestant cette résolution par eux-mêmes ou par le moyen de leurs parents (padres) ou des tuteurs desquels ils dépendent.

3. Chacune de ces Sociétés a la liberté de régler, par elle ou par le moyen de ses prêtres, les croyances et les pratiques du culte qu'elle professe, et de fixer les conditions dans lesquelles elle admettra les hommes dans son sein, ou les en séparera, pourvu que, par ces dispositions, comme par l'application qui en sera faite aux cas particuliers qui pourront se présenter, on ne commette aucune faute ni aucun délit que prohibent les lois ; dans ce dernier cas, ces lois seront strictement appliquées dans leurs prescriptions.

4. L'autorité de ces Sociétés religieuses et de leurs prêtres sera purement et absolument spirituelle, sans aucune coaction d'autre sorte, qu'elle s'exerce sur les hommes fidèles aux doctrines, aux conseils et aux préceptes d'un culte, ou sur ceux qui, après avoir accepté ces choses, changeraient, ensuite, de manière de voir. Action populaire est concédée pour accuser et dénoncer les infracteurs du présent article.

5. Dans l'ordre civil, il n'y a d'obligation, de peines ni de coaction d'aucune espèce en ce qui touche aux questions, fautes, et délits purement religieux ; en conséquence ne pourra avoir lieu, même à la requête d'aucune église ou de ses directeurs, aucun procédé judiciaire ou administratif pour cause d'apostasie, de schisme, d'hérésie, de simonie ou tout autre délit ecclésiastique. Mais si à ces causes se joignait quelqu'une des fautes ou quelqu'un des délits compris dans les lois qui sont actuellement en force et vigueur, et auxquelles il n'est pas dérogé par le présent Decret, l'autorité publique compétente connaîtra du cas et prononcera sans prendre en considération ni sa qualité ni son importance dans l'ordre religieux. Ce même principe sera observé lorsque les fautes et les délits indiqués résulteront d'un acte qui sera jugé propre à un culte quelconque et autorisé par lui. En conséquence, la manifestation des idées sur les points religieux, et la publication des bulles, brefs, rescrits, lettres pastorales, mandements et tous écrits traitant également des mêmes matières, sont des choses dans lesquelles on jouira de pleine liberté, à moins que par elles on n'attaque l'ordre, la paix, ou la morale publique, ou la vie privée, ou, de toute autre manière, les droits des tiers, ou bien qu'on provoque a quelque crime ou délit ; car, dans tous ces cas, abstraction faite du point religieux, on appliquera irrémédiablement les lois qui prohibent de tels abus, en se conformant aux prescriptions de l'Article 23.

6. Dans l'économie intérieure des temples et dans l'administration des biens dont les lois permettent l'acquisition aux Sociétés religieuses, ces dernières auront, en ce qui touche à l'ordre civil, toutes les mêmes facultés, les mêmes droits et les mêmes obligations que toute association légitimement établie.

7. Sont abrogés les recours de force ("recursos de fuerza"). Si quelque église ou ses directeurs exerçaient un acte particulier de la puissance publique, l'auteur ou les auteurs de cet attentat suffiraient respectivement les peines que les lois imposent à ceux qui les commettent en corps ou séparément.

8. Cesse le droit d'asile dans les temples ; on pourra et l'on devra employer la force qui sera jugée nécessaire pour y prendre et en extraire les coupables déclarés ou présumés, conformément aux lois, sans que l'autorité ecclésiastique puisse avoir d'intervention dans cette qualification.

9. Le serment et ses rétractations ne sont pas dans les attributions des lois. Tous les droits, obligations, et peines légales sont déclarés valides et consistants, sans avoir besoin de considérer, parfois, le serment comme ayant connexité avec les actes de l'ordre civil. Cesse, par conséquent, l'obligation légale de jurer l'obéissance à la Constitution, le bon accomplissement des charges publiques et de diverses professions, avant de les exercer. Cesse de la même manière l'obligation légale de jurer certaines manifestations déterminées devant les agents du fisc, et les confessions, témoignages, rapports d'experts, ou toute autre déclaration ou affirmation qui se fasse au dedans ou en dehors des tribunaux. Dans tous ces cas, dans tout autre où les lois exigeaient le serment, ce dernier sera remplacé désormais par la promesse explicite de dire la vérité dans ce qu'on déclarera, ou de remplir bien et fidèlement les obligations que l'on contractera ; et l'omission, le refus, ou la violation de cette promesse causeront, dans l'ordre légal, les mêmes effets que s'il s'agissait, suivant les lois préexistantes, du serment omis, refusé, ou violé. Dans l'avenir, le serment ne produira aucun effet légal dans les contrats qui seront célébrés ; et jamais, en vertu de ce serment ou de la promesse qui le remplacera, on ne pourra confirmer une des obligations qui, auparavant, avaient besoin d'être jurées pour acquérir force et consistance.

10. Celui qui, dans un temple, outragera ou tournera en ridicule par paroles, ou de toute autre manière manifestée par des actes extérieures, les croyances, pratiques, ou autres objets du culte auquel cet édifice sera destiné, souffrira, suivant les cas, la peine de la prison ou de l'exil, dont le maximum sera de trois mois. Lorsque, dans un temple, on fera une injure, ou l'on commettra quelque autre délit emportant violence ou acte deshonnête ("dishonestidad,") la peine des coupables sera moitié plus forte que celle dont les lois frappent le délit dont il s'agit, en le considérant comme commis dans un lieu public et fréquenté. Mais cette augmentation de peine s'appliquera de telle façon qu'elle ne produise, au temporel, ni prison, ni déportation ni travaux forcés pour plus de dix années. L'ancien droit sur la sacrilège est réformé dans les présentes dispositions, et les autres délits auxquels on donnait ce nom seront soumis à ce que prescrivent les lois dans des cas identiques, abstraction faite de la circonstance purement religieuse.

11. Aucun acte solennel religieux ne pourra avoir lieu, hors des temples, sans permis écrit, concédé, pour chaque cas, par l'autorité politique locale, suivant les règlements et les ordres que les Gouverneurs du district et des états expédieront en se conformant aux bases qui sont exprimées ci-après :—1. La conservation de l'ordre public doit passer avant toute autre considération. 2. Ces permis ne doivent pas être concédés lorsqu'on redoute qu'ils produisent ou facilitent quelque désordre, soit par manque de respect à l'égard des pratiques ou des objets sacrés d'un culte, soit pour des motifs d'autre nature. 3. Si la dite autorité, parcequ'elle n'éprouvait aucune crainte dans ce sens avait concédé le permis dont il est question, et s'il survenait quelque désordre à l'occasion de l'acte religieux autorisé, on ferait cesser cet acte, et on ne pourrait le permettre à l'avenir, hors des temples. La manque de respect, dans ces cas, ne sera punissable que lorsqu'il dégénérera en force ou en violence.

12. Il est défendu d'instituer héritier ou légataire le directeur du testateur, quelque soit la communion politique à laquelle il aura appartenu.

13. Il est également défendu de nommer des quêteurs pour solliciter et recueillir des aumônes avec destination à des objets religieux, sans approbation expresse du Gouvernement respectif, qui la concédera par écrit ou la refusera, suivant qu'il lui paraîtra convenable ; et ceux qui, sans présenter la justification de cette approbation, pratiqueront de pareils actes seront tenus pour vagabonds et répondront des fraudes qu'ils auront commises.

14. Cesse le privilège appelé de compétence en vertu duquel les ecclésiastiques Catholiques pouvaient retenir, au préjudice de leurs créanciers, une partie de leurs biens. Mais, si au moment d'opérer une saisie pour dette de prêtres, à quelque culte qu'ils appartenassent, il n'y avait pas d'autres biens, sur lesquels pût retomber l'exécution, que quelq' appointement fixe, on pourra seulement saisir cet appointement pour le tiers de son produit périodique. On ne considérera comme soumis au séquestre ni les livres de l'intéressé ni les choses qu'il possédait et appartenant à son ministère, ni les autres biens que les lois, par mesure générale, exceptent de la saisie.

15. Les clauses testamentaires qui disposeront le paiement de dîmes, d'obventions ou de legs pieux, de quelque nature et dénomination qu'ils soient, seront exécutées uniquement en ce qui ne portera pas préjudice à la cote héréditaire forcée, conformément aux lois, et, dans aucun cas, le paiement ne pourra se faire en biens fonds.

16. L'action des lois ne s'exercera pas sur les prestations des fidèles pour soutenir un culte et les prêtres de ce dernier, à moins que ce ne soit lorsqu'elles consisteront en immeubles, ou lorsqu'interviendra la force ou la tromperie pour les exiger ou les accepter.

17. Cesse le traitement ("tratamiento") officiel qui avait coutume d'être donné à diverses personnes et corporations ecclésiastiques.

18. L'usage des cloches continuera à être soumis aux règlements de police.

19. Les prêtres de tous les cultes seront exemptés de la milice et de tout service personnel

coërcitif, mais non des contributions ou rémunérations qu'imposeraient les lois pour ces franchises.

20. L'autorité publique n'interviendra pas dans les rites et pratiques religieuses concernant le mariage. Mais le contrat qui émane de cette union reste exclusivement soumis aux lois. Tout autre mariage qui sera contracté sur le territoire national, sans l'observation des formalités que prescrivent les mêmes lois, est nul et incapable, par conséquent, de produire aucun de ces effets civils que ce droit n'attribue qu'au mariage légitime. En dehors de cette peine, il n'en sera imposé aucune autre aux unions désapprouvées par le présent article, à moins qu'il n'y intervienne la force, l'adultère, l'inceste ou le dol; car, en pareils cas, on observera ce que prescrivent les lois relativement à ces délits.

21. Les Gouverneurs des Etats, du district, ou du territoire, veilleront, sous leur plus étroite responsabilité, à l'exécution des lois rendues relativement aux cimetières et pantheons, et à ce qu'en aucun lieu les cadavres ne manquent d'une sépulture convenable, quelle que soit la décision des prêtres de leurs églises respectives.

22. Restent dans toute leur vigueur et dans leur force les lois qui châtent les outrages commis sur les cadavres et leurs tombeaux.

23. Le Ministre d'un culte, qui, dans l'exercice de ses fonctions, ordonnera l'exécution d'un délit ou exhortera à le commettre, souffrira la peine de cette complicité, si le dit délit est consommé. Au cas contraire, les juges prendront en considération les circonstances pour imposer jusqu'à la moitié ou moins de la dite peine, à moins que les lois n'en désignent une autre plus grande.

24. Bien que tous les fonctionnaires publics, en leur qualité d'hommes, jouissent d'une liberté religieuse aussi ample que tous les habitants du pays, ils ne pourront avec leur caractère officiel assister aux actes d'un culte, ou de déférence pour ses prêtres, à quelque hiérarchie qu'appartiennent ces derniers. La troupe formée est comprise dans la prohibition qui précède.

Pourquoi j'ordonne, &c.

Donné au Palais du Gouvernement National, à Vera Cruz, le 4 Décembre, 1860.

(Signé)

BENITO JUAREZ.

Decree of the Archbishop of Mexico against Civil Marriage Law.

Vicariat de Queretaro.

A MM. les Vicaires desservants et Curés résidant hors de la capitale.

Conformément aux déclarations contenues dans notre lettre pastorale du 5 Aout dernier et dans le mandement que d'accord avec Monseigneurs les Evêques de cette Province Ecclésiastique, nous avons publié le 30 du même mois, les fidèles doivent savoir :—

1. Que ceux que se marient malgré les empêchements établis par l'Eglise, sans avoir obtenu de dispense de l'autorité ecclésiastique à qui il appartient de l'accorder, contractent un mariage nul, vivent en concubinage, et ne sont pas véritablement mariés, qui que ce soit qui célèbre le mariage.

2. Que de même, le mariage sera nul s'il n'a été célébré devant le curé de paroisse, deux témoins; et

3. Que la déclaration faite devant l'autorité civile que les contractants ont l'intention de s'unir par les liens du mariage, et même la célébration du mariage devant l'autorité civile et en présence de témoins, ne constitue pas un mariage ni un contrat valable. Ceux qui par cette déclaration de leur volonté ou par suite de la célébration du mariage par l'autorité civile vivront maritalement, seront en état de concubinage et non véritablement mariés.

Dans la susdite pastorale du 5 Aout de l'année dernière, nous vous avons requis d'instruire les fidèles à cet égard; et comme la loi sur le mariage civil vient d'être publiée dans cette capitale, nous croyons utile de vous réitérer les mêmes ordres et recommandations.

Mexico, le 29 Décembre, 1860.

(Signé)

LAZARO, Archevêque de Mexico.

En marge : Vicaires desservants de avec ordre d'en envoyer copie dans leurs circonscriptions respectives. Copie certifiée et communiquée par ordre de Sa Sainté au Vicaire desservant de

Mexico, le 31 Décembre, 1860.

On the 30th March, 1861, Lord John Russell received a letter from Mr. Matthew to the effect that he had settled with the Government the matter of the claim, on the following terms:—

1. To repay the amount due to her Majesty's subjects from the seizures of the conducta at Tampico and at Lagos, within four calendar months from the 12th instant, at Vera Cruz or Tampico, together with interest at the rate of 12 per cent. per annum; the amount payable being understood to be free of export duty.

[281]

2. That the Government apologizes for the act of Governor Garza.
3. That (as regards the outrage at her Majesty's legation) on the hoisting of the English flag at her Majesty's legation, the Mexican banner will be hoisted at the palace and other public buildings, and will do their utmost to bring the perpetrators of the outrage to justice: and
4. That the Government undertake to repay the 660,000 dollars plundered at the legation.

On the 3rd April, Lord John Russell received a letter from Mr. Matthew informing him that on the receipt of his lordship's despatch, he had proceeded to Mexico and tendered to the Mexican Government the recognition of her Majesty's Government, and of the moral support of Great Britain, when he sent to the President the following address:—

SIR,—It is with sincere gratification that, in fulfilment of the commands recently conveyed to me, I have the honour to tender the recognition of her Majesty's Government to your Excellency, as the legal head of the Mexican Republic, together with the assurance of the moral support of Great Britain, which is due no less to the honourable and just views entertained by your Excellency and your Cabinet of the occurrences which have marked with indelible infamy the late arbitrary rule in this capital, than to the wise basis of religious and civil liberty on which your Excellency's Government is declared to be founded.

Great Britain has taken a constant and warm interest in the independence, the nationality, and the prosperity of Mexico, and it would betray gross ignorance of the sentiments and of the policy by which the councils of the Queen my gracious Sovereign are actuated were its perfect disinterestedness questioned.

The mutual advantages of commerce, unrestricted by trammels and by high duties, which invariably injure the very objects they are intended to carry out, and the mutual enjoyment of Constitutional liberties, form a better international bond than that of a power or dominion.

Permit me, in congratulating your Excellency upon the termination of the lamentable civil war by which Mexico has been so deeply injured, to express a fervent hope that the public peace may not be again disturbed; for upon its endurance, on the public principles now established, I believe the nationality of the Republic to depend.

The extension of sound education, which is, I doubt not, one of the first objects of your Excellency's Government, will lead the citizens of the Republic to feel that it is only by the legal course, through their Representatives in Congress, that views and opinions at variance with existing ordinances can be brought forward, and that any other less peaceful mode merits to be stigmatized as treason, and justly exposes those who adopt it to the name and to the fate of traitors to their country.

And to the address President Juarez sent the following reply:—

SIR,—It is gratifying to me to receive, through you, the recognition of the legal Government of the Republic by Great Britain, and the moral support which that power is pleased to offer to Mexico, based on the just disapproval this Government has expressed, in the name of the people, against the outrages committed in this capital by the rebels who usurped power, without ever having titles of legitimacy; and on the fact that civil and religious liberty is one of the bases of our institutions.

I feel sincere gratitude for the interest you have just shown, in the name of your Government, for the independence, nationality, and prosperity of Mexico, whose Government know too well the enlightened Councils of the Queen to doubt of their interest towards a people who have sacrificed so much in order to obtain the great reforms required by civilization, and the principles of liberty so vigorously maintained by Great Britain herself.

Commerce, freedom, and mutual confidence are also, in my opinion, the strongest bonds of union which can join the two nations, and it will be the constant endeavour of this Government to strengthen these and make them more lasting.

I thank you for your congratulations for the re-establishment of public peace, and legitimate institutions, as also for the wish you express that Mexico in reforming her laws and institutions may not depart from the path of legality.

I see in the recognition by Great Britain of the legal order of the Republic an augury for peace and prosperity, and a proof of the rectitude and justice which guide the Councils of your august Sovereign.

You may assure your Government that I will endeavour to maintain and strengthen the cordial relations existing between the two countries, and offer my most fervent prayers for the prosperity and aggrandizement of Great Britain.

POLAND.

Correspondence with the Government of Russia respecting the Affairs of Poland, 1831-1832.

On the 16th of March, 1831, Viscount Palmerston received a letter from Lord Heytesbury informing that an ukase had been made out appointing Field Marshal Diebitsch to be Military Governor of Poland, and M. Engel to be head of the Provisional Civil Government which was to be established at Warsaw after the entry of the Russian army. And on the 22nd of March Viscount Palmerston sent the following Despatch:—

Foreign Office, March 22, 1831.

MR LORD—Your Lordship's despatch of the 25th ult. seems to imply that if the Russian arms should be finally triumphant in Poland, it is the intention of the Emperor to make some material changes in the system of government in that country.

In an ordinary case of civil war between a Sovereign and his subjects, foreign States can have no grounds for interference, even by advice or remonstrance; but there are circumstances peculiar to the Kingdom of Poland which make it in this respect an exception to the general rule.

The Kingdom of Poland was created and attached to Russia by the treaty of Vienna, to which most of the States of Europe were parties. That treaty defines the relation in which Poland was to stand towards Russia, by providing that it should be attached to the Russian Empire by its constitution and should enjoy a distinct administration.

His Majesty's Government are of opinion that any change which would have the effect of incorporating Poland with the Russian Empire, and of destroying its separate administration and constitution, would be a breach of the treaty of Vienna, to which England and all the other Powers who were parties to that treaty, would have an unquestionable right to object. His Majesty's Government, however, are disposed to believe that the appointments announced in the ukase mentioned in your lordship's despatch are intended to provide for the emergency of the moment, and are applicable only to the interval which must elapse between the occupation of Warsaw by the Russian troops, and the complete restoration of the Emperor's authority as King of Poland. But if your lordship should find that there exists any intention on the part of the Russian Government to make any material changes in the political condition of Poland, you are instructed to watch those changes with the closest attention, and to remonstrate in strong terms against any measure of this kind which might not be in strict accordance with the stipulations of the treaty of Vienna.

His Majesty's Government could not admit that the revolt of the Poles, and their casting off the authority of the Emperor and King, could afford to the Russian Government any grounds for departing from the stipulations of the treaty of Vienna. That revolt cannot release Russia from engagements contracted with other Powers; engagements which had for their object, not merely the welfare of the Poles, but the security of neighbouring States. In order to put your lordship more completely in possession of the views of the British Government in 1814 and 1815 upon the subject of the arrangements for Poland, of the part which was taken with regard to those arrangements by the British Plenipotentiary at the Congress of Vienna, and of the bearing of those arrangements upon the security of other States, I send your lordship copies of various despatches received at this office in the years 1814 and 1815.

Your lordship will see explained in these papers the importance of the advanced military position which the Kingdom of Poland presents to Russia, interposed as it is between Austria and Prussia, and at no great distance from the capitals of each. It is obvious that this position would become more commanding if Poland, instead of being a separate kingdom, and occupied, as by its constitution is stipulated, only by native troops, were to become a Russian province, and the Russian army were to change its permanent stations from the Niemen and the Memel to the Vistula and the Warta: such an alteration in the military attitude of Russia must of necessity tend to give her an inconvenient ascendancy over Austria and Prussia, and might, under many conceivable circumstances, impress upon the policy of those two Powers a character very different from that which it might assume if free from external influence. These considerations were felt in the year 1815, but they have acquired additional weight since that time, in consequence of the increased security which Russia has acquired on her Southern and on her Asiatic frontiers, by the successes of her arms over the Turks and the Persians; because in proportion as she is free from danger of all molestation in those quarters, she may concentrate her forces for any given purpose in Poland.

His Majesty's Government are fully sensible that it is a matter of great delicacy for one Government to make any communication to another as to the manner in which it may think

fit to deal with subjects who have been subdued after an unsuccessful revolt; and they have too high an opinion of the generous and high-minded sentiments of the Emperor of Russia to doubt that his victory will be used with as much moderation and mercy as may be consistent with the future security of his authority; but as far as you may find it useful and proper to touch upon this subject, you will conform your language to the sentiments entertained upon it by his Majesty's Government.

There is one other point to which I wish to direct your attention. By article 1 of the treaty of Vienna it is stipulated that the Poles, subjects respectively of Russia, Austria, and Prussia, shall obtain a national representation and institutions regulated according to the kind of political existence which each of the Governments to which they belong shall think it useful and fitting to grant them. It is understood that although this stipulation has been executed by Austria and Prussia, it has hitherto been entirely unfulfilled by the Russian Government. His Majesty's Government have been informed by the French Ambassador at this court that instructions have been sent to the Duke de Mortemart to draw the attention of the Russian Government to this matter, and the French Government have expressed a wish that your lordship might be instructed to support the duke in his representations on this subject. Your lordship will of course be careful not to take any step on this business which could lead to any unfriendly discussions with the Russian Government, with whom his Majesty's Government are, under present circumstances, more than ever desirous of keeping up the closest relations of friendship.

But if the question should be agitated, your lordship is instructed to state that as far as his Majesty's Government are informed of the facts of the case, it does not appear to them that the provisions of the treaty of Vienna applicable to the Polish provinces of Russia have been hitherto carried into execution.

I am, &c.,
(Signed) PALMERSTON.

On the 26th of April Viscount Palmerston received a despatch from Lord Heytesbury to the effect that he had communicated the above despatch to Count Nesselrode, and he added that Count Nesselrode had observed that we could not but do to the Russian Government the justice to admit that the violation of the treaty of Vienna was entirely on the side of the insurgents, who, in proclaiming the *déchéance* of the Emperor and independence of Poland, had virtually destroyed the act to which they owed their existence as a nation. But notwithstanding the just indignation to which such conduct naturally gave rise, the Emperor would adhere to the strict letter of the engagements he had contracted with foreign Powers by the treaty of Vienna; and declared that although his Imperial Majesty was by no means disposed to admit any right of interference with the internal affairs of his dominions, would hold to the strict letter of the engagements which Russia had really contracted with foreign Powers.

In answer to Lord Heytesbury's allusion to the difference that would be given to the attitude of Russia by the permanent establishment of the Russian armies on the Vistula and Warta, his Excellency observed that he could not understand why England and France should object to this, if the two Powers who might be supposed to be most interested immediately approved the measure. An attempt has been made by France to alarm the court of Vienna upon the subject, and to engage it to join in its remonstrances to the Cabinet of St. Petersburg, but entirely without success. Count Nesselrode here read to his lordship a despatch from M. de Tatischeff, giving an account of Marshal Maison's conversation with Prince Metternich upon the subject, and the Prince's firm and decisive answer in approbation of the Emperor of Russia's proceedings. He further told his lordship that a similar attempt had been made at Berlin, and though he was not yet officially acquainted with the answer, he had not the slightest doubt of its being essentially the same as that of Austria. "Indeed," observed his Excellency, "what possible difference can it make to these Powers or to Europe (if the army stationed in Poland be really faithful and devoted to their Sovereign) whether it wears a Polish or a Russian uniform? If it be not faithful, and be not attached to

the Emperor (as there is but too much reason to fear so long as a Polish army shall exist there), the case may, indeed, be different; but then the inference to be drawn from the demand for its continued existence must be, that the object in view is not the tranquillity of Europe, but the weakening and embarrassing of Russia, by engaging her to maintain a force upon her frontier, ready to break into open rebellion upon every favourable opportunity. If," said the Count, "we are only to retain possession of Poland upon this condition, it would be better for us to make a present of it to any Power willing to accept the offer."

Lord Heytesbury then stated that he had a conversation with the Duc de Mortemart upon the subject, when the duke expressed himself ready to co-operate with him to a certain extent. His Excellency also confirmed what had already been stated by Count Nesselrode, namely, that he had not as yet considered himself bound to do more than to recall to the recollection of the Emperor, as well as to that of Count Nesselrode, the engagements taken at Vienna, and to express the hope of his Government that they would not be violated. His instructions, he said, were not very precise, and were applicable rather to the moment of victory (which he did not think by any means arrived), when it might be attempted to give a good direction to the well-known magnanimity of the Emperor, than to the present state of things, when all was uncertainty and doubt.

The Duke then informed Lord Heytesbury that the assurances which had been given to him were perfectly satisfactory as far as they went. He had been told that the letter of the treaty of Vienna would not be departed from; that no incorporation of the kingdom of Poland with the empire of Russia would take place; that the separate administration of the two countries would be maintained though all the places in that administration might no longer be exclusively occupied by Poles; and lastly, that after the dissolution of the Polish army, arrangements would be made for supplying its place in a manner that would have no just ground for complaint to any foreign Power.

On the 30th October, Viscount Palmerston received a despatch from Lord Heytesbury, asking instructions of a more specific character on the affairs of Poland; and, in answer, Viscount Palmerston desired his excellency to urge upon his Majesty's Government that his Imperial Majesty would use his victory with moderation and mercy; that severities of any kind, not authorized by the laws and constitution of Poland, should be avoided; that a full and complete amnesty should be granted. And he proceeded as follows:—

"Your excellency was instructed in a former despatch to state that his Majesty's Government could not see with indifference the Poles deprived of the advantages which had been secured to them by the treaty of Vienna. These advantages consisted in the stipulation that a constitution should be granted to them, and in the constitution which, in consequence of that stipulation, they afterwards received from the Emperor Alexander.

"His Majesty's Government is not unmindful of the arguments which you state to have been adduced to prove that the Polish Constitution is in no degree identified with the treaty of Vienna; but the validity of this reasoning cannot, as it appears to them, be maintained.

"The treaty of Vienna declared that the kingdom of Poland should be attached to Russia by its constitution. A constitution the Emperor of Russia accordingly gave; and it surely is no forced construction of the

meaning of that treaty to consider the constitution so given as existing thenceforth under the sanction of the treaty. But it is argued that the same power which gave may modify or take away. This, however, is an assertion for which no proof is afforded. The constitution once given, became the link which, under the treaty, binds the kingdom of Poland to the empire of Russia; and can that link remain unimpaired, if the constitution should not be maintained?

"Had the constitution reserved to the sovereign a right to change or modify, no objection could then have been made to the exercise of a power which would legally have been his. But the constitution carefully guards against any such acts of executive authority. It declares (article 31) that the Polish nation shall for ever possess a national representation, consisting of a diet, composed of a King and two Chambers; it declares (article 163) that the organic statutes and the codes of laws cannot be modified or changed, except by the King and the two Chambers; it requires (article 45) that every King of Poland shall swear before God and upon the Scriptures, to maintain the constitution, and cause it to be executed to the best of his power; and the Emperor Alexander on the 27th November, 1815, formally gave this constitution, and declared that he adopted it for himself and for his successors.

"Such are the provisions of the constitution, which points out the authority by which any change or modification is to be made; and changes arbitrarily effected by the executive authority alone would obviously be violations of the constitution. It appears that some persons suppose the intention of the Russian Government to be to abolish the present form of government in Poland, consisting of a diet composed of a King and two Chambers, and to substitute for the Chambers Provincial States such as those which have been established in Galicia and in some of the provinces of Prussia; and it is argued that such a change would still leave to Poland a constitution sufficient to satisfy the stipulations of the treaty of Vienna. But could such a form of government, fairly, and according either to the letter or the spirit of the treaty of Vienna, be considered as placing Poland in the situation which was thereby contemplated? That treaty clearly appears to draw a marked distinction between the system of government to be established in those parts of Poland which had been annexed as provinces to Austria, Prussia, and Russia, and had been incorporated in their respective dominions, and that part which was to form the separate kingdom of Poland, and which was to be placed, as such, under the same sovereign as Russia, and secured in the enjoyment of its distinct rights and privileges.

"In the former provinces, accordingly, the grant of Provincial States was perfectly in accordance with the rights to be exercised by the sovereign over provinces that were incorporated with his other dominions; while the constitution given to the kingdom of Poland was suited to the separate and distinct position in which it was placed in its relation to the Russian Empire. But in the separate kingdom of Poland, united according to the treaty of Vienna by its constitution with the crown of Russia, to abrogate that constitution, and to substitute Provincial States, expressly modelled after those which had been granted to the incorporated provinces of Austria and Prussia, would be, in effect, to reduce that kingdom, though still nominally possessing a separate existence, to the state and condition of a province, deprived of all the rights and excluded from all the advantages which had been secured to it.

"It cannot be admitted that the revolt of the Poles, and their violation of the constitution by voting the separation of Poland from the crown of Russia, can absolve the Emperor, after his authority has been re-established, from his obligation to adhere to that constitution. Wrongs committed by one side are not to be punished by the commission of wrongs on the other. From the submission of the Poles to the arms of his Imperial Majesty, Europe looks for the re-establishment of law and justice, and not for acts of retaliation and vengeance; since whatever excuse such acts may find in the troubles of an intestine war, they could not be palliated if resorted to by a power which has subdued all opposition, and which cannot plead for its measures the necessity of any pressing emergency. It has often been stated in the proclamations which have been issued by the Russian Government from time to time during the war, that only a part of the Poles had joined in the revolt, and that the majority of the nation remained faithful. If that be so it affords a strong argument for not punishing the innocent for the offences of the guilty, by depriving all of the advantages which the constitution confers upon them.

"If, on the contrary, the whole of the nation should appear to have partaken in the revolt, such a general insurrection could only have proceeded from deeply-seated discontent, and such a feeling is not likely to be removed by a sweeping abrogation of the constitution."

On the 18th January, 1832, Viscount Palmerston received a despatch from Lord Heytesbury, announcing that the answer of the Russian Government upon the Polish question was a refusal to admit the British interpretation of the treaty of Vienna, and a determination to persevere in the arrangements previously announced. The despatch to Prince Lieven was forwarded, in which all the arguments adduced by Viscount Palmerston was recapitulated and replied to in detail. This despatch was communicated to Viscount Palmerston on the same date.

"The real motives which led to the rejection of our suggestions are not those put most prominently forward, nor, indeed, are these more than obscurely hinted at in Count Nesselrode's despatch, which is principally occupied with explanations of the engagements contracted by the treaty of Vienna. They are, however, very easily summed up. In the first place, it is believed that no measures of conciliation or favour would ever reconcile the higher classes in Poland to Russian dominion; secondly, that a restoration of privileges, therefore, would only be the restoration of the powers of resistance; and, thirdly, that even if means could be found to paralyse those powers, the peaceable co-existence for any long period, and under the same sceptre, of absolute government in Russia, and constitutional liberty in Poland, would be impossible. These are the real motives for the refusal to listen to our arguments. The question is a question of life or death to this Government. It feels it to be so; the public at large feel it to be so; and the refusal will, I fear, be steadily persisted in, let the consequences be what they may.

"It must not, however, be concluded that our efforts in favour of the Poles have been entirely thrown away. It will be sufficient to cast our eyes towards the Russo-Polish provinces not included in the kingdom of Poland, and, consequently, out of the reach of foreign intervention, to be convinced of the contrary. In the kingdom of Poland, setting out of the question those accused of assassination, and the officers of the three corps of Kaminski, Rybinski, and Ramorino, who form a class apart, and who

are now gradually returning to their homes, upon consenting to renew their oaths of allegiance, there are not above twenty individuals excluded from the amnesty, or who will suffer for their political conduct. But in the Russo-Polish provinces incorporated with the empire, confiscation of property, exile, or deportation to Siberia are the general lot. Not an individual has been suffered to escape who took any active part in the revolution. This different measure of punishment, though it speaks little, perhaps, in favour of the clemency of this Government, shows clearly the effect of foreign intervention. We may not have gained much, but we, at least, have the consolation of reflecting that the course pursued would have been infinitely more severe had we not taken the line we did."

On the 24th January, 1832, Viscount Palmerston received a despatch from Lord Heytesbury, stating that there was no intention of making any other change in the political condition of Poland, besides that of substituting Provincial Assemblies for the former General Diet, and that of disbanding its army. The Provincial Assemblies would be modelled upon those established in the Grand Duchy of Posen which were understood to be rather of a more liberal form than those of Galicia. They would, however, be far from presenting any sort of analogy with the Diet it was proposed to abolish.

On the 12th March, Viscount Palmerston sent to Lord Heytesbury an answer to Count Nesselrode's despatch, instructing him to state that his Majesty's Government, after giving the most attentive consideration to the arguments used in Count Nesselrode's despatch, were still of opinion that the reasoning contained in his despatch of the 23rd November, 1831, with respect to the engagements and sanctions by which the Polish constitution was secured, had not been satisfactorily answered.

On the 3rd July, 1832, Viscount Palmerston sent instructions to Lord Durham, recapitulating the position of affairs respecting Poland, with instructions to treat the abrogation of the constitution of Poland as a measure which her Majesty's Government deeply regretted as inconsistent with the true construction of the treaty of Vienna, and as injurious to the interests of Russia herself. He then continued, "The treaties of 1815, to which Russia was a party—not only the general act of the Congress of Vienna, but the separate treaty between Russia and Prussia—clearly stipulate that the nationality of the Poles shall be preserved. But statements have reached his Majesty's Government which, if true, tend to show a deliberate intention on the part of the Russian Government to break down the nationality of Poland, and to deprive it of everything which, either in outward form or in real substance, gives to its people the character of a separate nation.

"The abolition of the Polish colours; the introduction of the Russian language into public acts; the removal to Russia of the national library, and public collections containing bequests made by individuals upon specific condition that they never should be taken out of the kingdom of Poland; the suppression of schools and other establishments for public instruction; the removal of a great number of children to Russia on the pretence of educating them at the public expense; the transportation of whole families to the interior of Russia; the extent and severity of the military conscription; the large introduction of Russians into the public employments in Poland; the interference with the national Church;—all these appear to be symptoms of a deliberate intention to obliterate the political nationality of Poland, and gradually to convert it into a Russian province.

"It is evident, upon the slightest reflection, that such a project could not

be accomplished. To change 4,000,000 of Poles so entirely as to impart to them the character of Russians is an attempt for the success of which it would be difficult to assign a limit, either of time or perseverance. But the endeavour would lead to a severe and continued exertion of arbitrary power, which would create a strong and general feeling against Russia, and must be regarded as a decided violation of the engagements contracted by Russia at Vienna in 1815.

"Your lordship will endeavour to obtain accurate information as to what is true on these points, and if you should find that the reports which have reached his Majesty's Government are well founded, you will take every favourable opportunity of urging the Russian Government, on the part of his Majesty, with the earnestness, and at the same time with the freedom of a sincere friend, to adopt a milder and juster system; founding yourself upon the treaty of Vienna, as the basis upon which rests the right of his Majesty to interpose this expression of his feelings on the affairs of Poland.

"It is unnecessary to remind your lordship that it is of great importance, not only for the accomplishment of the various objects pointed out in these instructions, but also for the permanent interests of Great Britain, to cultivate and to increase, if possible, the friendly relations now so happily subsisting between this country and Russia. Your lordship, therefore, will use your discretion as to the manner of pressing the various topics to which I have adverted, so as to produce the greatest possible effect, giving at the same time the least possible offence; and your lordship will omit no proper opportunity of assuring the Emperor of the sincere and cordial friendship which his Majesty entertains for his imperial Majesty, and of declaring his Majesty's desire to maintain, and, if possible, to draw closer, the bonds of alliance which connect two powers whose union must have so salutary an effect in preserving the peace of the world."

On the 3rd September, Viscount Palmerston received a despatch from Lord Durham, stating that he had determined not to deliver any formal note on the subject to Count Nesselrode knowing that if he did he should only receive a repetition of the formal denial of the justice of our reasoning, and fearing that the publicity of our interference would oblige the Emperor either to take steps of additional severity in order to prove to his Russian subjects that he was not controlled in what they consider the administration of their internal affairs by a foreign power, or that he would be forced, for the same reasons, to postpone those measures of conciliation which might be in his imperial Majesty's contemplation. He then continued:—

"That there is a public opinion in this country is not to be denied—existing doubtless in a class, and expressed in a mode and through channels differing in every respect from those which are known and recognized in our country, but yet one to which, when pronounced by the nobles and the military, the Emperor, all powerful as he is, is obliged to yield.

"There has long been a jealousy, nay hatred, existing between the Russians and Poles. The late war was one on which the very existence of the Russian Empire was considered to depend, more especially after the declaration of the Poles that the Emperor had forfeited his right to the throne. Any acts of grace and favour, therefore, towards the Poles by the Emperor have been and still continue to be viewed by the Russians with great jealousy and disapprobation.

"In these circumstances I deemed it most advisable to pursue the following line of conduct. I told Count Nesselrode that, by my instructions, I

was charged to mention the affairs of Poland to him; that I was fully sensible of the delicacy of the question; that after a minute examination of all that had passed on this subject between him and Lord Heytesbury, I found that every point contained in my instructions had already been pressed upon him, and conveyed to the Emperor; that I did not, therefore, feel myself called upon to put in any formal repetition in writing of the same arguments, and protest against the proceedings in Poland, but that I begged him to understand that we adhered to the fullest extent to our original opinion. I also told him that the accounts which had reached England of the severities which had been practised towards the Poles had produced the most unfavourable impression on the public mind, of which acts no contradiction had ever appeared; that when I mentioned this to Prince Lieven, he denied the truth of the statements in the strongest terms, but said it was beneath the dignity of the Emperor to notice such calumnies.

"I said that I deeply lamented the adoption of this course; that the motives of this silence were not known or appreciated; that, in the meantime, all the accusations were believed to be true, and a feeling created against which no minister in England could successfully contend, unable as he was either to justify or contradict the allegations advanced; and that, therefore, it was most essential that I should be enabled to obtain some information which would at once relieve the Russian Government from the imputations cast on them, and justify the English Cabinet in the avowal of those feelings of amity and cordiality towards Russia which we were so anxious to acknowledge.

"Count Nesselrode said that he felt sensible of the friendliness and delicacy of the motives which induced me to take this mode of mentioning the subject to him; that it was surely not necessary to reopen an already settled question; that we had declared our interpretation of the treaty of Vienna, from which three of the great Powers had dissented; that, our protest having been recorded, he did not suppose that we required more than an acknowledgment of that record, and that Russia never could assent to the correctness of the view we had taken of the treaty, in which opinion she had been joined by Austria and Prussia.

"He then used the same expressions, nearly, as Prince Lieven, with reference to the charges brought against them in the public papers, denied their truth, and told me that, before my departure, I should be put in possession of such details as would convince me how much the Russian Government had been calumniated.

"I assured him that I should receive these details with great pleasure, and should be most happy to be made the means of affording a contradiction to allegations so injurious to the interests of both Governments; and I finished the conversation by saying, that any acts of leniency and grace which the Emperor might be able to show towards the Poles could not but produce a most favourable effect in England.

"I have now detailed to your lordship all that has passed between Count Nesselrode and myself on the subject of Poland. If you think that an official note ought to be sent in, you will be pleased to say so; I have given my reasons for not having hitherto done it. I consider that the honour and consistency of England has been sufficiently vindicated by previous declarations, and I fear that its presentation now may have the effect of preventing, or arresting, those measures of grace towards the unfortunate Poles the adoption of which it must be our anxious desire to promote."

POLAND.

Correspondence with Prince Talleyrand respecting Poland, 1831.

ON the 20th July, 1831, Viscount Palmerston received from Prince Talleyrand a note communicating a despatch from General Count Sebastiani, relative to the state of Poland, asking England's co-operation on behalf of Poland. But on the 22nd, Viscount Palmerston answered that, if there was any probability that the Emperor of Russia would avail himself of the good offices of the two Courts, and that their intervention would lead to an accommodation, his Majesty would willingly co-operate in a friendly endeavour to restore peace between Russia and Poland. But there were too many reasons for fearing that a simple offer of mediation, so far from being desired by his Imperial Majesty, would, at that moment, certainly be refused; that such a proceeding, however conciliatory in form, could not fail to alarm an independent Power naturally jealous of its rights, and sensibly alive to everything which might appear to affect its national honour; and that for these reasons his Majesty felt himself under the necessity of declining the proposal which the Prince de Talleyrand had been instructed to convey.

FORAGE.

A detailed Explanation of the Estimates for Forage, Fuel, and Light in the United Kingdom. (Mr. Alderman Copeland.) 9th April, 1861. (135.)

THE forage for 15,714 horses cost altogether 436,708*l.*, the average cost of ration in Great Britain being 19*d.* in Great Britain, and 16*4d.* in Ireland. The fuel and light was estimated at 172,390*l.*: viz. 86,240*l.* for barracks in Great Britain, 21,582*l.* for barracks in Aldershot, and 34,468*l.* for barracks in Ireland; besides 1,600*l.* for occasional camps, 23,500*l.* for gas, and 5,000*l.* for firewood.

MOROCCO LOAN.

Convention between her Majesty and the Emperor of Morocco relative to a Loan to be raised in London, by the Emperor, signed on October 24, 1861.

ART. I.—His Majesty the Emperor of Morocco engages that from and after the ratification of the present convention there shall be paid over to a commissioner named by her Britannic Majesty 50 per cent. of the custom duties at all the ports of the empire of Morocco. Her Britannic Majesty, on her part, engages that six weeks before the period at which the half-yearly charges on the loan of 426,000*l.* sterling, which the Emperor of Morocco is about to raise, shall become due, she will transfer to the agent or agents of the contractors for that loan the sums so to be received by the commissioner of her Majesty, or so much thereof as may be sufficient to pay the interest and sinking fund on the said loan, the amount of such sums not exceeding in the aggregate 15 per cent. on the above-mentioned sum of 426,000*l.* sterling. But her Britannic Majesty shall not be liable for the payment of more than she receives. In case the sums received should be more

[291]

than sufficient for such half-yearly payments, the surplus shall be repaid by the British commissioner to the officers of the Emperor of Morocco, duly authorized to receive the same.

Art. II.—When, by means of the payments provided for in the preceding Article, the whole of the loan of 426,000*l.* sterling shall have been repaid, together with the interest due thereon, the commissioner of her Britannic Majesty shall cease to receive the 50 per cent. of the custom duties at the ports above-mentioned, and shall repay to the said officers of the Emperor of Morocco any balance that may be remaining in his hands.

FORTIFICATIONS.

Account of the Moneys raised and issued and the Amounts remaining to be raised and issued on Account of the Expenses of Fortifications, and the Amount of Annuities created in respect of the Moneys so raised to the 31st July, 1861. (48.)

THE amount raised up to the 31st July, 1861, was 360,000*l.*, and the value of annuities raised 22,820*l.* The money issued and applied for fortifications was 150,000*l.*; the amount remaining to be raised of the sum of 2,000,000*l.* authorized was 1,640,000*l.*, and the amount remaining to be issued or applied of the said sum 1,850,000*l.*

ARMY AND MILITIA.

Returns of the Average Number of Effectives on the British Establishment from 1st April, 1860, to 31st March, 1861. (General Peel.) 16th April, 1861. (166.)

THE average number of effectives, including the staff and embodied militia, from the 1st April, 1860, to the 31st March, 1861, was 149,082; the average number of effectives on the Indian establishment was 86,732. On the 1st April, 1861, the number of effectives on the British establishment was 145,862, and on the Indian establishment 82,200; of embodied militia, none.

NAVY STEAM AND SAILING SHIPS.

Return of her Majesty's Steam and Sailing Ships afloat, building, and converting, on the 1st of February, 1861. (Lord Clarence Paget.) 19th February, 1861. (45.)

ON the 1st of February, 1861, there were of ships of the line, 53 afloat, and 14 building or converting. Total, steam, 67; sailing, 10: total, 77. Frigates, 40 afloat, 12 building; total, 52 steam and 17 sailing: total 69. Block ships, 9 iron-cased ships; 1 afloat, and 6 building. Corvettes, 19 afloat and 4 building. Sloops, steam, 93 afloat and 14 building, and sailing, 18; total, 125; small vessels, 25; gun vessels, 195; floating batteries, 8; transports, 66; mortar ships, 4; mortar vessels and floats, 83: total steam vessels afloat, 505; building, 57: total, 562; sailing, 129: total, 688.

[292]

COPPER.

A Return of all Exports and Imports of Copper and Copper Ore and Regulus, Tin and Tin Ore, Lead and Lead Ore, and Spelter for twelve months to the 31st December, 1860. (Mr. Davey.) 10th May, 1861. (235.)

THE quantity of copper imported into the United Kingdom in 1860 was 76,285 tons of ore, 21,032 tons of regulus, 4,070 tons of unwrought copper in bricks and pigs, rose copper, and all cast copper; 896 tons of old copper fit only for re-manufacturing; 7,683 tons of part wrought copper, viz., bars, rods, and ingots hammered or raised; 447 tons of plates and coin, and 915 tons of copper manufactures and copper plates engraved. The greater part of the copper ore and regulus came from Chili and Cuba. The British copper exported was 26,116 tons, of which 8,909 tons were sent to British India, 5,080 tons to France, 1,688 tons to Holland. From the Port of London alone there were exported 13,999 tons, from the Port of Liverpool 7,825 tons, and from the Port of Swansea 3,114 tons. The quantity of tin imported was 2,911 tons of tin and 674 tons of tin ore, the tin principally from British India, Singapore, and Holland, and the ore principally from Peru, Victoria, Australia, and France. The tin exported was 2,740 tons British, and 508 tons of foreign, principally to France, Russia, Turkey, United States, Italy, and Spain. There were imported 23,481 tons of zinc, or spelter, 4,386 tons of lapis calaminaris, and 935 tons of oxide of zinc; and exported 5,271 tons of British, and 4,211 tons of foreign zinc or spelter, and 79 tons of oxide of zinc, foreign. Of lead and lead ore there were imported 22,171 tons of lead, pig and sheet, 811 tons of lead ore, 2 tons of read lead, 163 tons of white lead, and 5 tons of chromate of lead. The lead was principally imported from Spain. In 1860 there were exported 123 tons of lead ore, 21,986 tons of pig and rolled lead, 1,811 tons of shot, 543 tons of litharge, 2,455 tons of red lead, and 2,813 tons of white lead. The British lead and lead ore were principally sent to China, Russia, and the United States of America.

EXCHEQUER.

An Account of all Monies during the year ended 31st March, 1861, to the Account of her Majesty's Exchequer at the Bank of England and of Ireland under the respective Heads of Public Revenue; the Amount of all Royal Orders and Treasury Warrants received, and of the Credits and Transfers made by the Comptroller of the Exchequer; the Payments by the Bank of England and the balance remaining to the Account of the Exchequer at each Bank on the 3rd March, 1861. (88.)

THE receipts were as follows:—Exchequer balances, on the 31st March, 1860, 7,983,360*l.* 12*s.* 10*d.*; consolidated funds, &c., 80,994,765*l.* 12*s.* 9*d.*: total, 88,978,126*l.* 5*s.* 7*d.* The Exchequer credits at the Bank of England, and transfers at the Bank of Ireland, amounted to 84,302,806*l.* 7*s.* 4*d.* The balance of credit at the Bank of England on the 31st March, 1860, was 1,501,420*l.* 18*s.* 2*d.* The payments by the Bank of England,

SERIES A.

M

[293]

76,574,327*l.* 13*s.* 5*d.* The balance of credit at the Bank of England on the 31st March, 1861, 756,327*l.* 13*s.* The balance of income at the Bank of England on 31st March, 1861, 5,326,346*l.* 0*s.* 11*d.*, and at the Bank of Ireland on the same date, 1,348,973*l.* 17*s.* 4*d.* The balance at the Bank of England on the 30th March, 1861, was—balance of income, 5,326,346*l.* 0*s.* 11*d.*; balance of credit 756,327*l.* 13*s.*: total, 6,082,673*l.* 13*s.* 11*d.*

LACE MANUFACTURE.

Report upon the Expedience of subjecting the Lace Manufacture to the Regulations of the Factory Acts.

ACCORDING to the most recent available returns there were in 1851, 3,200 machines at work in the English lace trade, employing 2,965,845*l.* of capital and 135,015 hands, and in 1856, there were 3,500 machines, upon which the total returns amount to 4,040,000*l.*, composed of raw material 980,000*l.*; wages, interest, wear and tear, and profits, 3,060,000*l.* The number of hands employed was about the same as in 1851. The inspector reported that the work was often kept going up to the hours of nine, ten, eleven and twelve, at night, and that youths from 15 to 18 were employed in the machines working the usual "shifts" with the men, the shifts beginning at 5 A.M. and ending at 10 P.M. and after 12 at night. After describing the opinions of both the advocates and the opponents of legislation, the inspector recommended as follows:—

That from and after the 1st of August, 1862, the Factory Acts should be applied to the lace manufacture, subject to the following exceptions:—

I. That youths above the age of 16 should be permitted to work between the hours of 4 A.M. and 10 P.M., but not more than nine hours within those hours.

II. That the provisions of the Factory Acts in regard to requiring machinery to be fenced off should not extend to the lace manufacture.

The reasons for the first recommendation are the following:—

1. Unless some concession is made by which any *threading* that may be required to be done after factory hours can be done without a violation of the Act, the Act will be extensively evaded.

2. The above mode of meeting that difficulty is simpler than any of the others that have been suggested, and more easy to be enforced by inspection.

3. It avoids the necessity of imposing so heavy a burden upon the whole trade as that of providing extra sets of bobbins and carriages, which would involve an estimated outlay of from 130,000*l.* to 175,000*l.* in order to a compliance with the strict requirements of the Factory Act.

4. It would only require that an extra set of bobbins should be provided for those machines which have not an extra set already, which would necessitate an outlay of probably not more than one-third of the above sums. Of the 4,000 machines in the trade, it has been seen that it is admitted that nearly all those in the fancy trade, about one-half of the whole, have already double sets of bobbins; and that a very large proportion of those in the plain net trade have them also, the machines in Derbyshire and West of England being principally plain net machines; and many of the same kind

in Nottingham and its neighbourhood having double sets also. It is acknowledged that the plain net trade is the one which could best afford any additional outlay, the trade in that branch being generally most regular, and the machines belonging, as a general rule, to persons of capital. Whenever a machine has two sets of bobbins, one set could, with exceptions too slight to be taken into account, always be wound within factory hours. There would remain, therefore, the process of threading for any machines whose pieces "came off," after factory hours. Among the staff of threaders there could be no difficulty in the way of having a few above 16 years of age; that being the age between which and 17 or 18 there are now many youths still at work as threaders, waiting in expectation of being promoted to learn the work of managing a machine as soon as an opportunity offers. If the machines are going 18 hours a day (the most common average) there would be a far greater probability of the pieces coming off the machines in the 12 hours before 6 P.M. than in the four hours between 6 P.M. and 10 P.M., and it would seldom happen that any inconvenience would arise if one or more youths above 16 were on the spot between 6 and 10 P.M. to be ready as threaders, when their services were expected to be required within those hours. The process of taking the empty bobbins from the carriages and putting the full ones in, and the subsequent process of threading, would be a comparatively short one, and the machine would then be "got on" again with but little delay.

5. No hardship would result to the youths themselves from this liability to be employed for nine hours a day, between the hours of 4 A.M. and 10 P.M. According to the custom of the trade the threaders, even without any legislative regulations, very seldom attend at the factory before 5 or 6 A.M.; they come most commonly at 6, and very often are not required before 7; and are very seldom actually at work more than seven or eight hours during the whole four and twenty; also their work is performed sitting, and is of the lightest kind. But to prevent, by legislation, the employment of youths of that age within the hours specified (i.e. between 4 A.M. and 10 P.M.) would, at times of brisk trade, or when there were large orders for work from particular machines, often so impede the work of the machines as to supply a strong temptation to the owner to evade the act altogether, which he would be able to do with very great facility.

6. It is argued that the strict application of the Factory Acts would be desirable in the interest of the lace manufacture itself, if it could be made to produce the effect of reducing the working hours of the machines; as it is contended that over-production and consequent losses result from the general habit of keeping the machines going, when there are orders, 18, 20, and in some instances the whole 24 hours. But the answer to this argument is that this is a matter, not for legislation, but for the judgment of those engaged in the trade (334); and that even if it were, the facilities of evading an act, which upon this point would be felt to be burdensome to the trade, are so great, that no measure that did not meet as far as possible the requirements of employers would be successful.

7. The power of employing youths above 16 between the hours specified is not open to the objections on the grounds of morality, which are now urged against their liability to be employed at all hours of the night. In consequence of their present practice, no parent can, without personal inquiries at the factory, know whether the excuse for being absent from home at any hour of the day or night is real or not. Practically, therefore,

all domestic control is lost. But when the hours within which the work may be done are subject to regulation, the power of exercising this control is to that extent restored.

8. Neither can any serious objection be made to it on the ground of its abridging to any extent that need be detrimental the opportunities of education at that time of life. In the first place a boy brought up as a threader will, from the age of about 8 or 9, when they usually begin to work in a lace factory, have been under the necessity of going to school for half his time up to the age of 13, in conformity with the regulations of the Factory Acts. From 13 to 16 he will, as a threader, have had greater opportunities of attending evening school than he could have had in any other employment, inasmuch as his hours of work will not only have been limited within factory hours, but will not have amounted to the number (10½) permitted by the Factory Acts; his actual average hours of work not amounting to more than eight or nine, and that of the lightest description, so that any fatigue, preventing mental application in the evening, is impossible. Accordingly, a threader boy, when arrived at the age of 16, ought to be better educated than any other boy of the class of operatives. For the same reasons also,—namely, the lightness of the work, and the frequent intervals during the day,—I do not think that for youths above 16 there is any necessity to make a difference between Saturday and any other day as to their hours of liability to work. Any legislative abridgment of their hours beyond that specified in this recommendation would be likely materially to interfere with the working of the machines, and therefore tend to frustrate the object in view by affording a motive for evading the act altogether. The recommendation also only anticipates by two years the time when the law ceases to operate upon male persons under the Factory Acts, all legislative protection as regards hours of work terminating for them at the age of 18.

9. It has been argued that rather than be at the trouble of keeping the books, &c., required by the Factory Acts for “half-timers,” many employers in the lace manufacture would discharge all children under 13. To this, however, it is answered, that it is to the interest of the employer to train children from their first going to work to the threading and winding, in order to give them the manual skill required, and that it is a disadvantage to have to bring them to that work from other employments. There is also another occupation for which the youngest boys are wanted, that of “jacking off,” or winding remnants of silk or cotton thread from the bobbins that have not been quite emptied when they were taken out of the machine. The earnings at this work are so small that they are not suitable for any but the youngest children. Many “jackers off” have hitherto been, and are at present, employed under eight years of age—a practice which would be stopped by the proposed act.

10. It has been suggested also that the precedent of the 13 & 14 Vict. c. 64. s. 7. should be followed, which permits any child above 11, employed solely in the winding and throwing of silk, to be employed in the same manner as young persons and women, i.e., to the full extent of the factory hours. But if a permission to employ youths of 16 and upwards in lace factories for the hours specified reasonably satisfies the requirements of the trade, there is no ground for depriving children between 11 and 13 of the benefits of education secured to them by the Factory Acts.

11. It is said that if the age of 15 were to be substituted for 16 as above

proposed, and to include both sexes, the temptation to evade the act would be still further reduced. But considering how few youths above 16, as threaders, would be required to perform work which may have to be done between 6 p.m. and ten p.m., I do not think there are sufficient grounds for extending the exemption from the requirements of the Factory Acts below the age of 16. Still less does there appear to me to be any necessity for extending the exemption to both sexes.

BANK OF ENGLAND.

Copy of Correspondence between the Chancellor of the Exchequer and the Governors of the Bank of England. (Mr. Chancellor of the Exchequer.)
7th February, 1861. (12.)

ON the 31st January, 1861, the Chancellor of the Exchequer wrote a letter to the governor and deputy-governor of the Bank of England referring to a report dated 19th November, 1860, on the expenses incurred by the Bank in conducting certain duties on behalf of the public in connection with the issue of notes, the care of the public balances, and the management of the national debt. Government did not propose any change on the two first subjects, but as to the management of the national debt Government conceived that the time had come when they might justly call upon Parliament to reconsider the rates of charge fixed by the act of 1808, and still substantially in force, although, as matter of account, reduced by the payments which the Bank makes to the State to the extent of 188,078*l.* per annum in respect of composition for stamp duties and of profit on the issue of notes. The Act of 1808 assigned to the Bank, as a remuneration for its charges and its responsibilities in the management of the national debt, an annual sum of 340*l.* per million up to the limit of 600 millions, and an annual sum of 300*l.* per million beyond that limit, with a proviso for a rate of payment of 450*l.* per million, in case the debt should at any time stand at less than 400 millions. It is also provided that terminable annuities shall be reckoned at 25 years' purchase. Mr. Gladstone then proceeded as follows:—

“I. We propose to ask Parliament to enact that a new plan shall take effect from the commencement of the next financial year, and shall remain in force for 25 years certain.

“II. The method of set-off by which the Bank gives credit on account of profits of issue and of stamp duty composition to the state, and deducts the amount so credited from its charge for the debt, was in conformity with the system under which the public revenue was managed and accounted for at the date of the subsisting arrangements. But in 1854 an act was passed, which provided for the payment into the exchequer of the gross revenue of the state. Agreeably to the spirit of that act, her Majesty's Government are of opinion that the sum of 188,078*l.* allowed by the Bank should no longer stand as a deduction from its charge against the public, but that the sum of 60,000*l.*, being the composition for stamp duties, should be paid to the department of Inland Revenue, and the sum of 128,078*l.*, being the allowance out of profits of issue, should be paid to the Exchequer as part of the miscellaneous revenues of the country. The charge for the

management of the debt would then stand as a separate and distinct charge, and would be defrayed, under an act for the purpose, out of the Consolidated Fund.

“ III. It seems evident that the valuation of terminable annuities is, by much, too high. A public annuity, granted for 99 years, would be worth something more than 25 years’ purchase at its inception; but its value would descend in a vanishing series to zero, and the mean value of it would probably lie between 12 and 15 years. Annuities granted for shorter terms would represent subjects for commercial dealing of proportionably narrower scope. And the comparatively limited nature of the market for these annuities would make it probable, that they would be managed at an inferior cost in relation to their value. Under these circumstances, it is the opinion of her Majesty’s Government that all terminable annuities henceforward granted by Parliament should, for the purposes of bank management, be valued as follows:—If originally granted for more than 50 years, at 15 years’ purchase. If for any lesser term, at 10 years’ purchase.

“ IV. Before I come to the rate of allowance to be made to the Bank for the management of the debt, I have to propose a somewhat different adjustment of the present graduated plan, with a view to giving greater fixity to the arrangements now contemplated during the time for which they are to last. The Bank now receives the greater part of its remuneration, namely, that on 600 millions of debt, at 340*l.* per million; and only 136 millions at the lower rate of 300*l.* per million. Now the outlay of the Bank in connection with this branch of its business does not appear to vary greatly with the minor variations in the amount of the debt, whether upwards or downwards. For the bulk of the debt it must keep its premises, and the bulk of the establishment. We therefore propose, and we confidently anticipate the concurrence of the Bank in proposing, that the great bulk of the remuneration also should be placed on the first 600 millions of the debt: or, more specially, that the rate per million, not exceeding 600 millions, instead of, as now, being but slightly greater than the rate above it, should be double that rate. Thus, the effect of any changes that might be adopted by Parliament in the form of the public debt would become comparatively of small importance to the Bank as a trading establishment.

“ V. With respect to the rate of remuneration, we propose to introduce a bill into Parliament which shall fix prospectively, as the rate of remuneration, the sum of 300*l.* for the first 600 millions of the debt, and of 150*l.* for the excess beyond 600 millions. The payment of 4,000*l.* per annum, termed house-money, and the payment of 1,579*l.* on account of South Sea debt, to cease and determine. The effect of this proposal will be to place the annual remuneration to the Bank on the present amount of debt, in round numbers, at about 200,000*l.* a year. The dormant provision of the present law, under which the Bank would be entitled to a payment of 450*l.* per million, if the debt under their management were reduced below 400 millions, is one which her Majesty’s Government see no reason to disturb. To a proposal of this nature Her Majesty’s Government are in hopes that Parliament would be induced to give the sanction of its authority; and on the other hand, they trust that the authorities of the Bank will deem it one affording to them a just an adequate remuneration for the important services which they have performed, we believe to the entire satisfaction of the public, under such regulations as are now in force regarding them.

“ In conclusion, I have to add that it will be eminently satisfactory to her

Majesty's Government, and will also be agreeable to the spirit in which the Bank of England adjusts itself to the demands of commerce and of monetary transactions, if you should be able to assure me of the intention of the Bank to afford increased facilities for business, such as would be supplied by a material contraction of the periods of shutting, if they cannot be dispensed with altogether; and also with respect to the payment of the dividends to the holders, wherever the Bank may have branch establishments."

In answer to this communication, the governor and deputy-governor of the Bank stated that the court of directors were induced to accede to the reduction, mainly because the combined management of the national debt and of the collateral departments of issue and banking enable them to exercise a very important economy in the labour charge and in the other expenses of bank administration.

SPIRITS.

Returns of the total Number of Gallons of proof distilled Spirits, distilled in England, Scotland, and Ireland respectively, &c. (Mr. Moffat.) 9th April, 1861. (144.)

In the year ended 31st March, 1861, there were distilled in England, 7,868,523 galls.; in Scotland, 13,946,536 galls.; and in Ireland, 6,474,670 galls.; total, 28,289,731 galls. In England, duty was paid upon 10,108,522 galls., duty, 4,493,212*l.*; in Scotland, on 6,428,549 galls., duty, 2,863,811*l.*; in Ireland, on 5,336,313 galls., duty, 2,345,783*l.*; total United Kingdom, 21,873,384 galls., duty, 9,702,807*l.* In England there were imported from Scotland 4,621,283 galls., on which 2,085,157*l.* duty was paid; and from Ireland 1,087,347 galls., on which 481,815*l.* duty was paid. In Scotland there were imported from England 7,852 galls., on which 3,426*l.* duty was paid; and from Ireland 4,904 galls., on which 2,109*l.* duty was paid. In Ireland there were imported from England 72,228 galls. spirits, on which 31,840*l.* duty was paid; and from Scotland 771,637 galls., on which 340,851*l.* duty was paid. The total number of gallons distilled in England, Scotland, and Ireland was:—England, 7,868,525; delivered duty paid from distillers' stock, 3,585,550 galls.; put into bond, 4,225,242 galls. In Scotland there were distilled 13,946,536 galls.; delivered 1,173,371 galls., and put into bond, 12,671,603 galls.; and in Ireland there were distilled 6,474,670 galls.; delivered, 340,776; and put into bond, 6,090,697 galls. Total distilled, 28,289,731 galls.; delivered duty paid direct from distillers' stocks, 5,090,697 galls.; put into bond, 22,987,542 galls. The difference between the quantity distilled and the sum of the quantities delivered duty paid and put into bond being caused by the allowance made for natural waste of the spirits while in the distillers' stocks. The number of gallons of British compounds and spirits of wine furnished from rectifiers' stock in England, Scotland, and Ireland for exportation was 228,802 galls. in 1855; 621,897 galls. in 1856; 818,718 galls. in 1857; 474,139 galls. in 1858; 375,715 galls. in 1859; and 469,281 galls. in 1860.

AGRICULTURAL LABOURERS.

Return of the Average Rate of Weekly Earnings of Agricultural Labourers in the Unions of England and Wales in the Quarters ended Michaelmas and Christmas, 1860. (Mr. Villiers.) 8th February, 1861. (14.)

	Men.			Women.			Children.				Men.			Women.			Children.		
	s.	d.	s.	s.	d.	s.	s.	d.	s.		s.	d.	s.	s.	d.	s.	s.	d.	s.
Surrey	13	0	..	6	0	..	3	0	to 5	Worcestershire ..	11	0	..	5	0	..	4	0	..
Kent	8	8	..	2	0	..	3	0	..	Warwickshire ..	10	6	..	3	6	..	2	6	..
Sussex	12	0	to 13	3	0	to 4	Leicestershire ..	12	0	to 15	6	0	..	2	0	..
Southampton ..	11	0	.. 15	6	0	..	3	6	..	Rutlandshire ..	12	0	..	4	0	..	4	0	..
Berkshire	12	0	..	4	0	to 5	3	0	to 4	Lincolnshire ..	13	6	..	6	0	..	2	0	to 7
Hertfordshire ..	11	0	..	4	0	..	3	6	..	Nottinghamshire ..	13	6	..	6	0	..	5	0	..
Huntingdonshire	10	6	..	3	6	..	3	6	..	Derbyshire ..	12	0	
Bedfordshire ..	10	6	..	6	0	..	2	6	..	Cheshire ..	11	0	..	6	0	..	4	0	..
Essex	11	0	..	6	0	..	1	6	to 7	Lancashire ..	14	0	..	8	0	..	3	0	..
Suffolk	9	0	to 11	4	0	to 6	2	0	.. 4	West Riding ..	15	0	..	7	0	..	6	0	..
Norfolk	11	0	..	3	6	..	3	0	..	North Riding ..	18	0	..	5	0	..	3	0	..
Wilts	9	0	to 10	4	0	..	2	6	to 3	Durham ..	12	6	..	6	0	..	5	0	..
Dorset	9	0	.. 10	3	6	..	3	0	..	Northumberland ..	15	0	..	7	0	..	7	0	..
Devonshire	8	0	.. 10	3	0	to 4	3	0	to 4	Cumberland ..	15	0	..	6	0	..	3	0	..
Gloucestershire	9	0	..	4	6	..	2	6	.. 4	Westmoreland ..	12	0	..	7	6	..	4	6	..
Herefordshire ..	9	0	..	4	0	..	3	0	..	Monmouthshire ..	10	0	to 12	6	0	..	6	0	..
Shropshire	10	6	..	4	6	..	2	0	..	Wales	12	0	..	8	0	..	4	0	..
Staffordshire ..	12	0	..	6	6	..	3	3	..										

Besides these wages, in most cases allowances were given of food or drink. During harvest beer is usually allowed. In Derbyshire during the hay harvest some of the labourers engaged with the farmers for a month and received from 15s. to 18s. weekly, with an unlimited quantity of food of good quality, consisting of new milk, bread, beef, bacon, cheese, and with from one quart to three pints of good home-brewed ale daily. Others will perform mowing by task work, for which they will receive from 3s. 6d. to 5s., with one quart of ale, per acre. An ordinary labourer will cut one and a-half acre per day; a few may cut two acres. In Hawarden, in Cheshire, the labourers get milk porridge for breakfast, beef or bacon and potatoes for dinner, bread and cheese for luncheon, and bacon and potatoes for supper during harvest. In Northumberland, besides the 14s. to 16s. a week, the labourer has a house and garden, pig kept during summer, dinner during harvest, and an allowance of 6d. or 1s. when from home each journey, retailing farm produce. Task work is not at all general, labourers being generally employed at weekly wages. When it does prevail the weekly earnings differ very much. At Droxford in Southampton it was 14s., at Andover 11s., at Buxworth, Northamptonshire, 12s. 6d., and at Peterborough 18s. On an average, however, the weekly earnings is 12s. to 14s. As regards the wages earned by women and children, it must be remembered that they are not usually employed in the winter quarter. The return furnishes particulars of many singular customs. In Morpeth, Northumberland, agricultural labourers are generally hired with part corn and potatoes planted, and part money wages. The wages alter according to the price of corn; when wheat is worth 7s. 6d. per bushel, barley 5s. per bushel, oats 3s. per bushel, peas 5s. per bushel, and potatoes 10s. per load, the usual allowance is 5s. to 6s. per week, and which with the privileges mentioned above make the run of wages equal to about 15s. to 18s. per week for men, according to their ability.

[300]

CUBAN SLAVE TRADE.

Despatch from Mr. Crawford, Her Majesty's Judge in the Mixed Commission Court at the Havana, dated Feb. 5, 1861, relating to the Cuban Slave Trade.

JUDGE CRAWFORD communicated that the slave trade continued to be carried on in the Havana upon the most extensive scale; and that, so far from its having become odious in the opinion of the public, there were more persons even of capital and influence engaged in it than ever.

The vessels employed in carrying on the slave trade have mostly been American-built, ships well known for their sailing qualities being of course preferred, and these were sought after and purchased here and elsewhere, their fittings and Spanish crews were put on board here and at the outports, or neighbouring cays, whence they proceeded on their voyage to Africa; but since the year 1858, when there was such outcry about our cruisers in these waters boarding American ships, the traffic has been almost exclusively carried on by vessels under that flag, which fit out and sail from the United States, and such has been the effect of the impunity enjoyed by the slave-traders, that the American masters and crews no longer hesitate to continue on board, and have brought all their energies and cunning into operation to avoid their own Government cruisers, as well on the coast of Africa as in the waters of Cuba, from the last mentioned of which all her Majesty's vessels of war have been withdrawn for the last two years. The number of Spanish ships has consequently become small that are engaged in the traffic. Under the flags of other nations there are slavers now and then, such nationality being assumed for the purpose of evading her Majesty's and the United States' cruisers.

The difficulty the slavers have to contend with is, their capture on the Coast of Africa. There is, I believe, no instance of a slaver escaping with her cargo from thence, being unable to effect a landing here; some few, it is true, have been fallen in with and captured by Spanish ships of war, but with these exceptions they have always been able to bribe the local authorities; and although the head or blood-money which it costs them to land their slaves is an enormous tax, the price obtained for Bozals has been such, for some time past, as is highly remunerative. Lucumis have averaged 1,200 dollars each at the place of landing, so there is a large margin for the adventurer wherewith to meet the expenses, which I thus estimate:—Cost of vessel and provisions, 25,000 dollars; cost of 500 negroes at 50 dollars, 25,000 dollars; 10 per cent. mortality, 2,500 dollars; wages and gratifications to master and crew, 30,000 dollars; blood-money for landing 450 slaves, at 120 dollars each, 54,000 dollars: total, 136,500 dollars. One year's interest till paid, at 10 per cent. per annum, 13,650 dollars; total, 150,150 dollars. Sale of 450 slaves at 1,200 dollars each, 540,000 dollars; profit on the adventure, 389,850 dollars. But the actual outlay in case a slaver is captured empty, but fully equipped, is only the cost of the ship, provisions, and interest thereon, say, 27,500 dollars, because the wages and gratifications are contingent, payable only if the adventure is successful; the loss by capture with the negroes on board would amount to 55,000 dollars, and no more. Consequently it will be evident to your lordship that the safety of one adventure amply repays the slave-trader for the loss of ten of his vessels if taken without slaves on board, or for five which may be captured after shipment of the negroes at the coast: facts

which sufficiently account for the increase and continuance of this detestable traffic.

Having shown that it is useless to continue any efforts of persuasion with Spain, Judge Crawford entered into the following particulars, to show that it is a short-sighted policy on the part of that country, and that the Cubans cannot compete, in the growth and manufacture of sugar, with the free labour of the British Islands. The present cost price of the Bozal negro is 1,200 dollars. This is the basis of the following note of the annual cost of a slave so paid for, viz.:—Interest at 15 per cent., 180 dollars; mortality, 25 per cent., 300 dollars; $1\frac{1}{2}$ year's instruction divided over 20 years, estimated duration of life, $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. of cost, 90 dollars; food, clothing, and medical attendance, at 10 dollars a month, 120 dollars; cost of a year's slave labour, 690 dollars. Or 57 dollars 50 cents. a month, equal to 11*l.* 10*s.*, or 8*s.* 10*d.* for each of the 313 working days in a year! No agricultural produce can be sufficient for such wages, and ruin must follow to all who are engaged in such enterprises.

The advocates of slavery will say, perhaps, that the above calculation is extravagant. My answer is, that the price has of late been very currently paid for Bozal negroes; that money cannot be raised by the planters so cheap as 15 per cent. per annum; that the mortality frequently exceeds 25 per cent., and is seldom less; that the period for instruction is not overrated, and is founded on information I have obtained from experienced planters; and that, at the most exorbitant prices of every necessary here, the slave cannot be clothed, fed, and attended to for less than my estimate.

Turn we then to an estimate of the cost of labour by the Chinese coolies, of which I do myself the honour of presenting to your lordship the following estimate:—Cost of a contract for eight years, 340 dollars:—Interest at 15 per cent. on year, 51 dollars; wages, 4 dollars, food, clothing, and medical attendance, 10 dollars, 168 dollars; mortality, 5 per cent., 17 dollars; instruction, 6 months on 8 years, 21 dollars; total annual cost of labour, 257 dollars, or 21 dollars 41 cents., or 4*l.* 5*s.* 9*d.* per month, equal to about 3*s.* 3*d.* a day, of the 313 working days there are in a year, which compares very unfavourably with the price of labour in her Majesty's West India Colonies. It is possible that, if her Catholic Majesty's Government could be convinced of the gradual, but no less certain, ruin of the whole agricultural interests in Cuba to which such wrong policy must lead, they would issue orders to be carried into effect for suppression of the slave trade.

The slaves are worked on Sundays as well as week days; so for them there are 365 days in the year, which reduces the cost of their labour to their masters to 7*s.* 6*d.* a day. Reducing the allowance for deaths to 10 per cent., which is very much under the mark for new negroes, the cost of labour on 365 days in the year comes to 5*s.* 6*d.* a day. Putting the cost of the Bozal at 600 dollars, or half of what has of late been currently paid by the planters, and mortality at 10 per cent., the slave labour comes to 3*s.* 6*d.* a day. On the above calculations there is no allowance for sickness, &c., and the most intelligent planters rate this at 1 and $1\frac{1}{2}$ days a week.

CHINA.

Correspondence respecting Affairs in China, 1860-61.

On the 29th October, 1859, Lord John Russell sent instructions to Mr. Bruce with reference to the attack on ships at Takoo, to the effect that, should the Chinese Government propose to exchange ratifications of the Treaty of Tien-tsin, he would not do it until the Chinese Government shall have made a formal apology for the act of the troops who fired on her Britannic Majesty's ships of war, and that he should apprise the minister of the Emperor that her Majesty's Government consider the understanding entered into by the Earl of Elgin at an end. If no pacific overtures be made, Mr. Bruce was desired to communicate to the Prime Minister of the Emperor, that unless within thirty days he received the unqualified assent of the Emperor to the British demands, the British naval and military authorities will adopt measures for the purpose of compelling the Emperor of China to observe the engagements contracted for him by his plenipotentiary at Tien-tsin.

On the 10th November, 1859, Lord John Russell further instructed Mr. Bruce that unless the most ample apology be promptly made, and the other demands be complied with, he should intimate that a large pecuniary indemnity would be demanded by her Majesty's Government from that of China. On the 11th the Admiralty sent instructions to Rear-Admiral Page, intimating that Chusand, in the Gulf of Pecheli, should be the basis for combined operations by the allied naval forces of the British and French Governments.

On the 3rd January Lord J. Russell instructed Mr. Bruce to issue a notification informing the Chinese of the causes of the impending hostilities:

The Emperor of China made in June, 1858, a treaty of peace with my sovereign, the Queen of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland. The Emperor ordered, by special command, that this treaty should be signed by his ministers. It was provided and agreed to by the Emperor, that the treaty should be ratified at Peking within a year. But when, in pursuance of the orders of the Queen, my sovereign, I attempted to go by the ordinary route of the Peiho to Tien-tsin, with a view to travel with my retinue from the mouth of the Peiho to Peking, in the most friendly manner, I found the river blocked with stakes and rafts, and when the Queen's ships endeavoured to remove these obstacles, they were fired upon, and many of the Queen's subjects were killed and wounded by the cannon of the Emperor of China. No notice had been given to me that the way to Peking by this, the ordinary passage, was to be prohibited, although a year had gone by since the signature of the treaty. The Queen has ordered me to ask for an apology for this injury, and to demand the ratification of the treaty. The Queen has asked that the Emperor should fulfil his solemn promise. This has been refused. It has been refused, also, to the Queen's august ally, the Emperor of the French. We go to seek redress for these wrongs, and to require that the word of the Emperor should be observed, and that an indemnity should be paid for the loss of men, and the heavy expense of obtaining redress. We wish to continue the friendly relations of commerce, and peaceable communications with the people of China. We wish to carry on the war only against armed men, and the advisers of the Emperor of China who urge him to war. Rely upon our disposition to respect your property and your families. Peace may thus continue between our nations, and the Emperor be forced to do justice.

On the 5th January Lord John Russell sent to the Admiralty the instructions for guidance of the Commander-in-chief of her Majesty's naval forces in China, as follows:—

Her Majesty, acting, in this respect as in others, in cordial concert with her illustrious ally the Emperor of the French, is desirous that the operations to be undertaken against China should be confined to the strict necessities of the case, and that with this view pressure should be made to bear, not so much on the population of China, as on its Government, which is the offending party. The Chinese Government, however, has not yet, except in the

case of Canton (now occupied by the allies), extended the sphere of hostilities to the cities and districts habitually frequented by foreigners.

It appears to her Majesty that it would be a harsh and unwise measure to subject the ports of China south of the Yang-tze-kiang to the hardships consequent upon a blockade. The Chinese authorities at those ports have shown no disposition to disturb the existing arrangements for commercial intercourse; neither have the Chinese inhabitants of those towns shown any sympathy with the policy of the Court of Peking, nor have they evinced any disposition to molest, on political grounds, foreigners established in those ports.

It is, therefore, the desire of her Majesty that, as regards those ports, and generally as regards the sea-board south of the Yang-tze-kiang, no measure of coercion should be applied by her Majesty's naval forces, so long as the temper and conduct of the Chinese authorities and people in those parts of China shall remain as friendly as they at present are. This principle, however, should not be carried so far as to preclude the officer in command of her Majesty's naval or military forces from occupying any position, either on or off the coast of China, such, for instance, as the Island of Chusan, which may be required as a basis of naval or military operations.

Her Majesty is further pleased to desire, that the coasting trade between the several ports of China within the above-mentioned limits should not be interfered with. Any interference with that coasting trade would inflict much distress on the population of those provinces, who depend for the means of existence, in a great degree, on supplies brought by sea.

But her Majesty considers that no such immunity either from blockade or from capture should be extended to the Chinese ports and trade, either on the Yang-tze-kiang, or to the north of that river. Any restrictions which can be placed on the ports and trade of China, in this northern part of the empire, will have an immediate and direct bearing on the Imperial Government.

On these grounds, it is her Majesty's pleasure that, if the Chinese Government shall not accede to the terms which Mr. Bruce has been instructed to propose, her naval forces, acting in concert and co-operation, as far as circumstances may admit, with the naval forces of her ally the Emperor of the French, should, at the earliest possible period, establish and enforce a *strict* blockade of the mouth of the Yang-tze-kiang, and of the entrances of the canal by which communication can be carried on between that river and Peking, and of all such ports and places on the sea-board of China, extending from the Yang-tze-kiang to the northward, and embracing the gulfs of Pecheli and Lean-tung, through which communication can be had with the interior for the conveyance of merchandize and provisions, as, in the exercise of the discretion which in this respect her Majesty is pleased to confide to the commander of her naval forces, it may appear to him desirable to subject to that restraint.

Her Majesty further desires that the commander of her naval forces should be instructed that all Chinese junks or other vessels found attempting to break, or act in violation of, a blockade effectively established, should be subject to capture, and be proceeded against in the usual manner to condemnation, according to such instructions as her Majesty may eventually be pleased to signify in that behalf to her Court of Admiralty.

But although her Majesty's Government, as at present advised, think it right to limit the operations of the British fleet in regard to blockade and capture in the manner which I have stated, they nevertheless, are willing to leave full discretion to the British admiral to carry out such operations beyond those limits, if circumstances should appear to render it advisable to do so.

Your lordships will point out to Admiral Hope that he must be careful to maintain in an effective manner any blockades which, in pursuance of these instructions, he may see reason to establish. He will forthwith, after establishing a blockade, notify the same at Canton and Shanghai, and generally on the coast, and he will as soon as possible report to your lordships the names of the places and ports blockaded.

Finally, I am to signify to your lordships her Majesty's special commands that Admiral Hope should be enjoined to conduct his communications with the naval and military commanders, and with the diplomatic representatives of his Majesty the Emperor of the French, in a spirit of the utmost cordiality and confidence. Her Majesty can entertain no doubt that those distinguished French officers, acting in obedience to the commands which they will receive from his Imperial Majesty, will be prepared to display the same spirit in their intercourse with the diplomatic, and naval, and military authorities of her Majesty; and it is obvious that the success of the operations to be undertaken in China must, in a great degree, depend on the harmony and good feeling which may prevail between the various authorities to whom the conduct of those operations is confided by their sovereigns.

On the same date, Mr. Sidney Herbert sent the following instructions to Sir Hope Grant, the commander of the military force:—

The Queen having been pleased to nominate you to the command of the military force destined to take part in the expedition to China, her Majesty's Government feel confident that her Majesty's service will derive the greatest advantage from the appointment of an officer whose experience both in China and in India peculiarly fit him for this important command.

The object of her Majesty's Government being to obtain the formal disavowal of, or apology for, the outrage committed at the mouth of the Peiho, and further to secure the ratification in good faith of the treaty of Tien-tsin, her Majesty has determined to reinforce the squadron now in the Chinese waters under the command of Admiral Hope, and to despatch from England two batteries of field artillery (*via* Egypt), and a battalion of the Military Train (by long sea), a battalion of infantry, viz., 1st battalion of the 2nd Foot, from the Cape of Good Hope, and a force from India consisting probably of at least five battalions of Queen's British Infantry, two squadrons of British cavalry, three batteries of field artillery, and a company of Royal Engineers, with some native irregular cavalry and infantry; the whole force, exclusive of the troops now in China, amounting to about 10,000 men. To act in conjunction with these forces, the Emperor of the French is about to despatch 5,800 infantry, four batteries of field artillery, and some "*compagnies de débarquement*," in all about 8,000 men, under the command of General Montauban.

You will immediately upon your arrival in China, after conferring with her Majesty's plenipotentiary, Mr. Bruce, place yourself in communication with the French commander, should he be arrived, and consult with him upon all occasions respecting the measures to be adopted by the allied forces for the conduct of the war, in the event of hostilities being determined upon, and her Majesty's Government entertain no doubt that under your command perfect harmony will prevail in the concert and execution of the operations that may have to be jointly undertaken by her Majesty's forces and those of the Emperor of the French.

The relative responsibilities of the officers commanding her Majesty's sea and land forces in China are defined in the enclosed memorandum, a copy of which will be transmitted by the Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty to the officer commanding her Majesty's naval forces, and it will be your duty to act in conformity with the instructions therein contained.

Authority for the commencement of hostilities will be conveyed to you by her Majesty's Minister in China; and if at any time in the course of subsequent operations on shore her Majesty's Minister should communicate to you that such overtures have been made to him by the Chinese Government as, in his opinion, hold out the prospect of a satisfactory arrangement without further hostilities, and should intimate to you at the same time his opinion that it would be desirable to suspend the operations on which you are engaged, it will be your duty to comply with his Excellency's wish, unless by so doing you may compromise your position or risk the loss of any military advantage which may be immediately within your reach. In such case you will fully and unreservedly state to her Majesty's minister your reasons for not at once complying with the tenour of his communication.

A strict adherence to these injunctions is the more necessary as her Majesty is unwilling to abandon the hope that the Emperor of China and his ministers will be sensible of the character of the outrage which was committed at the mouth of the Peiho, and of the policy of ratifying the treaty of Tien-tsin and abiding by its conditions with frankness and good faith.

Should, however, the hopes of her Majesty be disappointed in this respect, and should the resumption of hostilities be unavoidable, her Majesty's Government are anxious, as far as possible, to confine such hostilities to the part of the Chinese Empire in which the outrage of which we justly complain was committed.

Up to the latest period at which her Majesty's Government have received information from China, the inhabitants of the ports which are the great seats of commerce with Europeans have not only remained perfectly tranquil, but have manifested no animosity against her Majesty's subjects resident there, nor any desire to interrupt the friendly and peaceful relations existing between themselves and the Europeans with whom they trade.

Her Majesty's Government are anxious, for every reason both of humanity and policy, that these relations and this good understanding should be carefully preserved, and that whatever measures it may, unhappily, be necessary to adopt with a view to enforce upon the Emperor of China a policy of sincerity and good faith, should be directed against the central government, upon which alone should rest the responsibility of the proceedings at the Peiho, and not on an unoffending people who have abstained from all demonstrations of hostility against us, and shown no sympathy with the acts of the central government.

I need scarcely observe to you, that in a climate such as that in which you are about to operate, especial care in the matters regarding sanitary arrangements and the discipline of the troops will be indispensably requisite. The instruction which I have given to the medical and commissariat officers attached to the expedition are herewith sent to you, and you will give your best attention to their being carried out under your orders. In all movements of the troops you must give due warning to the sanitary officer, and order your assistant quartermaster-general to consult him as to the sanitary features of any ground which it may be deemed right to occupy for an encampment. In respect to the measures to be taken to insure the health and well-being of the troops as regards clothing, rations, &c., you will have full power to order any alteration in the rations of the troops which, after consultation with the paymaster and sanitary officers, you may consider it desirable to adopt.

You will report to me direct all proceedings in which you may be engaged, and you will keep me informed from time to time of every particular of your operations.

Memorandum showing the relative Responsibilities of the Officers commanding her Majesty's Sea and Land Forces in China.

It must be observed 'that in carrying on the operations indicated by the Government in the China seas, so much will depend upon the season, the period of the monsoon, the state of the navigation, and the weather, that it will be absolutely necessary that the supreme direction in respect to the point of attack under the instructions of the Government, and the period of making it, should be left to the admirals, or officers commanding the allied naval forces; they, of course, communicating freely with, and consulting the generals or other officers commanding the land forces, and attending to their opinion in the selection of a place for landing the troops, in case any should at any time be landed.

In case of difference of opinion, each of these officers is to give to the other his opinion in writing, signed by himself. In case of continued difference of opinion, that of the admiral is to decide the question, and to be the rule of conduct, considering that it is impossible for the troops to act alone, or unless in conjunction with, and supported by the fleet.

When the troops are landed, the officer commanding them is to be the sole director of their operations, he taking care to apprise the admiral and keep him informed exactly of what they are, and where they will lead him; and both admiral and general will understand that the fleet and army must not be separated as military bodies.

The army must depend upon a secure communication, and even union, with the fleet, for its supplies of provisions, ammunition, and military stores.

On the 8th February, 1860, Lord John Russell communicated to Mr. Bruce that it had been decided between her Majesty's Government and that of the Emperor of France that the amount of indemnity money to be demanded of the Chinese Government shall be in each case a sum of 60,000,000 francs; and on the 27th Lord John Russell stated that the Earl of Elgin and Baron Gros had been fixed upon for a special mission to China.

And on the 17th April, 1860, Lord John Russell gave to the Earl of Elgin the following instructions:—

It was to be hoped that the Emperor of China, when fully informed of the misconduct of his officers in firing upon British ships, without notice, would have been ready both to apologize and to declare his readiness to abide by the treaty of Tien-tsin, to which his Imperial sanction had been already given.

But hitherto we have only received obscure intimations that the treaty will be fulfilled by the Emperor of China; while the Chinese Government lay upon the British plenipotentiary and the British admiral the blame of that conflict which was occasioned by their own culpable concealment of their intention to resist by force the passage of the Peiho to Tien-tsin.

In these circumstances her Majesty, resolved to employ every means calculated to establish peace between her Majesty and the Emperor of the French on the one hand, and the Emperor of China on the other, has determined to call upon your lordship again to give your valuable services to promote this important object, and has signified her intention of appointing your lordship to proceed to China as her ambassador extraordinary to deal with these matters.

Her Majesty and her august ally are of opinion that persons of weight and authority like your lordship and Baron Gros, whom the Emperor of the French will appoint to act as your colleague, may prevail upon the Emperor of China to make concessions, which misplaced pride and misguiding counsels might otherwise induce him to reject, and thus to avert the necessity of further hostilities. It is obvious that many events may occur, and many difficulties may arise, in the course of the transactions which you and your colleague will have to conduct, which it is impossible to foresee. But some indications of the general views of her Majesty's Government may be useful to you in the performance of the duties you are about to undertake. In giving you these general views, I wish you to understand that your lordship is not required to pursue any line of conduct which circumstances of place and time may show to be inexpedient or inopportune.

The first point on which I shall touch regards the occupation of territory. If the requisite apology for the outrage at Takoo be made, and if the treaty of Tien-tsin be ratified, the necessity for a continued occupation of any portion of the Chinese territory, as a material guarantee for the payment of the required indemnity, may perhaps be obviated by some arrangement which will secure its gradual liquidation. This might be done by appropriating a portion of the Chinese customs duties to the gradual payment of the indemnity. This observation applies likewise to the occupation of Canton, which might in such case cease. If such an arrangement should prove to be impossible, you will concert measures with the French Ambassador for the joint occupation of Chusan, or some other portion of the Chinese territory, in addition to the city of Canton, by the British and French forces till the indemnity is paid.

There are some other points on which suggestions rather than directions may be given

to you with advantage. It will be necessary that the British and French Ambassadors should reach Peking, and that they should be received there with honour. Their continued residence at the capital must be a matter left to your joint discretion. There are many obvious inconveniences to which a British minister residing at Peking might be exposed during that part of the year when the severity of winter would cut him off from all communication with any British force or authorities in any other parts of China.

With respect to decisions which turn more upon naval and military considerations, such as the march upon Tien-tsin, the further advance of the allied forces beyond that town, and the occupation of Tien-tsin during the winter, should peace not have been made before the autumn, your discretion will be guided by the opinions of the allied military and naval commanders.

In carrying on operations in the north of China, there is a danger to which her Majesty's Government are very sensible. It may happen that, after taking the forts at the mouth of the Peiho, after the capture of Tien-tsin, and even in contemplation of the capture of Peking itself, the Emperor of China may refuse the terms of peace demanded. He may retire from his capital, and await in retirement in Tartary the further measures of the allies. Such a course might entail great embarrassment on the allies, and expose to danger the authority of the Emperor of China. As it might not be expedient that the allied forces should remain at Peking, or even at Tien-tsin during the winter, it would, probably, be necessary for them to return about the month of October to the gulf of Pecheli, and then, by blockade and the capture of islands and other similar measures, endeavour to distress the Chinese Government. But while this course would be tedious and expensive for the allies, it might place the Emperor of China in a position of obvious peril. Abandoning his capital upon the advance of European troops, condemned to admit the superiority of Powers whom the Court of China, in its fatuity, has hitherto treated with contempt, the Emperor would suffer greatly in reputation. The rebels would take heart; the great officers of the empire might find it difficult to maintain the central authority; the governors of provinces might hardly be able to quell insurrection. In short, the whole empire might run the risk of dissolution. Her Majesty would see with great concern such a state of things. It might even portend a great catastrophe; and the bonds of allegiance, once loosened, might never again be firmly united. In these circumstances your lordship and your enlightened colleague, Baron Gros, will be required to exercise those personal qualities of firmness and discretion which have induced her Majesty and her ally to place their confidence in you and the French plenipotentiary. There are, however, three conditions a consent to which by the Chinese Government seems indispensable. These are:—

First. An apology for the attack on the allied forces at the Peiho.

Secondly. The ratification and execution of the treaty of Tien-tsin.

Thirdly. The payment of an indemnity to the allies for the expenses of naval and military preparations.

If these terms are obtained, we may hope for permanent peace and future amicable relations with China.

On the 27th April, 1860, Lord John Russell received from Mr. Bruce the following copy of the ultimatum he had sent to the Chinese Government:—

Shanghai, March 8, 1860.

The undersigned, &c., has the honour to address a communication to his Excellency Pang Wan-chang, a senior secretary of State, and their excellencies the members of the Great Council of his Majesty the Emperor of China.

The undersigned has the honour to state, that, as in duty bound, he has laid before her Britannic Majesty's Government a full narrative of all the circumstances attending his journey to the mouth of the Tien-tsin river last summer, for the purpose of exchanging the ratifications of the treaty of Tien-tsin, as required by the provisions of that treaty, on or before the 26th June, 1859.

Besides the whole of his correspondence with the imperial commissioners and other officers of the Imperial Government, the undersigned has transmitted to the Government of her Britannic Majesty a copy of the Imperial decree, dated the 9th August, and handed by the Emperor's desire to the United States' minister, Mr. Ward, on the eve of his departure from Peking.

The decree begins as follows:—

"Last year the ships of the English sailed into the port of Tien-tsin, and opened a fire on our troops. We accordingly instructed Sang-ko-lin-sin, prince of the Korchin tribe, to adopt the most stringent measures for the defence of Takoo, and (the envoys of) the different nations coming up to exchange treaties on this occasion, were told by Kweiliang and Hwashana, at Shanghai, that Takoo was thus strictly guarded, and that they must go round by the port of Peh-tang. The Englishman Bruce, notwithstanding, when he came to Tien-tsin, in the 5th moon, did not abide by his original understanding with Kweiliang and his colleague, but actually forced his way into the port of Takoo, destroying our defensive apparatus."

The undersigned did not fail at once to apprise the Government of her Britannic Majesty that the Emperor had been singularly misled. Had it, indeed, been signified to him

[307]

by the commissioners at Shanghai that his Majesty had decided on closing to foreign envoys the natural and most convenient highway to his capital, such evidence of an unfriendly disposition on the part of the Imperial Government would certainly have been regarded by the undersigned as fit matter of remonstrance and negotiation.

No intimation of the kind, however, was conveyed to the undersigned in the letters of the Imperial Commissioners. The port of Peh-tang was never named by them, nor did the undersigned enter into any engagements with them, other than that contained in his letter of the 16th May, in which he acquainted his Excellency Kweiliang of the nature and object of his mission, and of his intention to proceed by ship to Tien-tsin, from which city he requested his excellency to give the necessary orders for his conveyance to Peking.

He begs to enclose copy of this letter, as also of that received from the Imperial commissioner of the 12th June. These will prove that the undersigned was allowed to quit Shanghai in total ignorance of the Emperor's objection to his employment of the usual river-route.

A like silence on the subject of the Imperial prohibition was observed towards Admiral Hope, commander-in-chief of her Majesty's naval forces in these seas, when in furtherance of the objects made known to his Excellency Kweiliang in the letter above cited, he appeared on the 17th June at the mouth of the river to announce the approach of the undersigned and his colleague, the Minister of France. The admiral was assured that the passage had been closed by the so-called militia whom he found in charge of the booms obstructing it, without the orders of their Government, none of whose officers, the militia repeatedly affirmed, were near the spot; also that it was closed, not against foreigners, but against a native enemy. These false representations were supported by false appearances: the batteries of the fort were masked; no banners were displayed; no soldier discovered himself. Still further to prevent verification of the statements of the militia, no communication was allowed with the shore. After promising to remove the obstacles at the river mouth, the militia repudiated the promise. They conducted themselves with rudeness and violence to the officers who were sent to speak with them, in one instance proceeding so far as to threaten the life of a gentleman despatched with a message from the admiral.

Such was the state of things when the undersigned arrived outside the bar, on the 20th June. Finding that the officials persisted in keeping aloof, while the militia continued to assert that the obstruction of the river-way was their own unauthorized act, he called on the admiral to take such steps as would enable him to reach the capital by the time appointed. This, after due notice given to the militia, and after receiving from them an assurance, on the previous evening, that they should certainly have nothing further to communicate, the admiral was proceeding to effect, on the 25th June, the eighth day from his arrival, when the forts, which had been for these eight days to all appearances deserted, suddenly opened fire upon his squadron. Apparently to cover this treacherous conduct, the officers in charge of the forts have imposed another fiction on his Imperial Majesty, who has been led to believe that the British squadron assumed the offensive by bombarding the forts. This is utterly without foundation: no shot was fired until the batteries had opened; the ships having no other object in advancing but to remove the obstacles placed across the river without authority.

The facts of the case are simply those stated by the undersigned, and her Britannic Majesty's Government, after mature deliberation, have decided that whether the Emperor of China was cognizant of this act of hostility, or whether it was directed by his officers, it is an outrage for which the Chinese Government must be held responsible. Her Britannic Majesty's Government require, therefore, an immediate and unconditional acceptance of the following terms:—

1. That an ample and satisfactory apology be made for the act of the troops who fired on the ships of her Britannic Majesty from the forts of Takoo in June last, and that all guns and material, as well as the ships abandoned on that occasion, be restored.

2. That the ratifications of the treaty of Tien-tsin be exchanged without delay at Peking; that when the minister of her Britannic Majesty proceeds to Peking for that purpose, he be permitted to proceed up the river by Takoo to the city of Tien-tsin in a British vessel; and that provision be made by the Chinese authorities for the conveyance of himself and of his suite with due honour from that city to Peking.

3. That full effect be given to the provisions of the said treaties, including a satisfactory arrangement to be made for the prompt payment of the indemnity of 4,000,000 taels, as stipulated in the treaty, for losses and military expenses entailed on the British Government by the misconduct of the Canton authorities.

The undersigned is further directed to state that, in consequence of the attempt made to obstruct the passage of the undersigned to Peking, the understanding entered into between the Earl of Elgin and the imperial commissioners in October, 1858, with respect to the residence of the British minister in China, is at an end, and that it rests henceforward exclusively with her Britannic Majesty, in accordance with the terms of article II. of the treaty of Tien-tsin, to decide whether or not she shall instruct her minister to take up his abode permanently at Peking.

The undersigned has further to observe, that the outrage at the Peiho has compelled her Majesty's Government to increase her forces in China at a considerable cost, and the contribution that may be required from the Chinese Government towards defraying this expense, will

be greater or less according to the promptitude with which the demands above made are satisfied in full by the Imperial Government.

The undersigned has only to add, that unless he receives within a period of thirty days from the date of this communication a reply conveying the unqualified assent of his Majesty the Emperor of China to these demands, the British naval and military authorities will proceed to adopt such measures as they may deem advisable, for the purpose of compelling the Emperor of China to observe the engagements contracted for him by his plenipotentiaries at Tien-tsin, and approved by his imperial edict of July, 1858.

The undersigned, &c.

FREDERICK W. A. BRUCE.

On the 28th of May Lord John Russell received from Mr. Bruce the reply to the ultimatum presented on behalf of her Majesty's Government, as follows :—

The Great Council of State to Commissioner Ho.

The Great Council writes a reply (to the Commissioner Ho, which he is) to transmit.

The Council received yesterday (or, a short time since), a despatch from the commissioner, and with it a communication he had forwarded from the British Minister Bruce, the contents of which have occasioned the Council the greatest astonishment.

He states (1), for instance, that Peh-tang was never alluded to by the Imperial commissioners Kweiliang and his colleagues. It appears that last year the Imperial commissioners, Kweiliang and his colleagues, waited for the British minister at Shanghai, for the express purpose of considering with him in person all the conditions proper to an exchange of treaties. On ascertaining that the Minister Bruce had arrived at Wu-sung, they wrote to him several times to engage him to meet them, their object being, in fact, to acquaint him that Takoo was fortified (or, that arrangements had been made for keeping people out of Takoo), and that he must go by way of Peh-tang. He, however, repelled them, refusing them an interview. The Imperial commissioners Kweiliang and his colleagues, moreover, informed him that vessels of war must, on no account (2), cross the bar; but the British Minister Bruce paid no attention to these words, and when, on arriving off the Tien-tsin coast (or, the port, or the ports, of Tien-tsing), Hang, Governor-General of Chih-li, dispatched an officer with a communication to the effect that he was to proceed by way of Peh-tang, and sent him a present of provisions; he would receive nothing, but suddenly brought his vessels into Takoo, and (commenced) destroying the defensive apparatus there placed. How can he allege that he never received the slightest intimation that he was to go by Peh-tang? And as he was coming to exchange treaties, why did he bring with him ships of war? It was plainly his intent to pick a quarrel. How, then, can he (when the blame is all his own) charge China with shortcoming towards him?

The defences prepared at Takoo are not either (as he implies) prepared to keep out the British (3). Suppose that some other nation's ships of war were to go the length of presenting themselves under British colours, could it be left to them to commit any breach of propriety they pleased? Well, then, the defences of Takoo cannot possibly be removed, even when the treaties shall have been exchanged.

(Then the demand for) indemnity under different heads, and for the restitution of guns, arms, and vessels, is yet more against decorum (4). The war expenses of China have been enormous. The cost of defending the coast from Kwang-tung and Fuh-kien up to Tien-tsin, from first to last, has not been short of several millions of money. Were she to demand repayment of England, England would find that her expenses do not amount to the half of those of China.

As to restoring ships and guns, the year before last England destroyed the forts at Takoo, and obtained possession of a number of guns belonging to China; ought she not, then, on her part, to be considering how to make these good? But, besides this, half the British ships and guns (demanded) were sunk in the sea; they are not in the possession of China at all. The question may be dropped, therefore, by both parties alike.

Then there is (the announcement that) the compromise by which, the treaties once exchanged, (the minister) was to have resided somewhere else, is at an end. The compromise by which, once the treaties were exchanged, (the minister) was either to select some other place of residence, or to visit (the capital) whenever there might be business of importance to transact, was definitely settled by the British Minister Elgin in negotiation with the Imperial commissioner Kweiliang and his colleagues. The revocation of this compromise now (announced) is even more unreasonable (than all the other propositions).

Last year when, after the Americans had exchanged their treaty, there was an alteration in the rate of tonnage dues, and the ports of Tai-wan and Changchau (Swatow) were opened to trade, the British minister earnestly prayed for a like arrangement (in his favour). The English had not exchanged their treaty, but his Majesty the Emperor, liberal to foreign nations and full of tender consideration for the interests of commerce, graciously sanctioned an extension of the boon to the English, for which they should be equally grateful (5). But if the compromise duly negotiated is to be annulled, there will be no impropriety on the part of China, if she cancel the arrangement by which she has conceded to the English (the same

advantage of) the improvements in tonnage-dues and trade that accrues to the Americans under their treaty.

To come to the (British minister's) request to be treated with courtesy when he comes north to exchange treaties. If he be sincere in his desire for peace, let the commissioner, when he shall have thought over all the details of the treaty, those which it will be proper to give effect to, and those respecting which compromise (or arrangement) is to be made, negotiate (with the British minister), and when both parties shall be perfectly agreed, if he will come north without vessels of war and with a moderate retinue, and will wait at Peh-tang to exchange the treaties, China will not take him to task for what is gone by. He must be directed to acquaint himself with the rules (observed or laid down) at the exchange of the American treaties, and the course to be pursued will be further discussed with him (by the commissioner).

But if he be resolved to bring up a number of vessels of war, and if he persist in proceeding by way of Takoo, this will show that his true purpose is not the exchange of treaties, and it must be left to the high officer in charge of the coast (or port) defences to take such steps as shall be thereby rendered necessary (*lit.*, as shall accord with reason).

The despatch written on this occasion (by the British minister) is in much of its language too insubordinate and extravagant (for the Council) to discuss its propositions more than superficially (*lit.*, to go deep into argument). For the future he must not be so wanting in decorum.

The above remarks will have to be communicated by the commissioner to the British minister, whom it will behove not to adhere obstinately to his own opinion, as by so doing he will give cause to much trouble hereafter.

A necessary communication.

NOTES.

The archives of Yeh's yamun prove that all the business of the empire is ordered by letters in this form, addressed by the Council to the provincial Governments; but they invariably begin with an acknowledgment of the receipt, on a particular date, of the Emperor's commands—of what we term an imperial decree. I assume that the Council wish it to be inferred that Mr. Bruce's propositions have not been submitted to the Throne.

(1.) The form in which this passage is adverted to, as well as all quoted below, has special reference to the closing remark of the letter. The whole thing is unreasonable; for instance this, for instance that, &c.

(2.) The commissioners' letter of the 12th June runs: "There is no need for him (Mr. Bruce) to feel any anxiety. They (the commissioners) would wish that on his arrival at the mouth of the Tien-tsin river (or Peiho) he would anchor his vessels of war outside the bar." The Tien-tsin river could not possibly signify the stream which falls into the sea at Peh-tang; this is named in the maps the Peh-tang Ho, and has no connection, save an artificial cut, not navigable, with Tien-tsin Ho.

(3.) Mr. Bruce's despatch cited the words of the Emperor's decree issued on the occasion of Mr. Ward's visit; in which his Majesty states that his fortification of Takoo was because of the irruption of the English the year before.

(4.) Against decorum ("li") should probably be against reason ("li"). One character has been written by the copyist for another.

(5.) Equally with the Americans. It will be remembered that the operation of their treaty concession was not sanctioned until after further negotiation, and then as a grace.

THOMAS WADE, *Chinese Secretary.*

On the 26th June Lord John Russell sent to the Earl of Elgin copy of a circular which he had addressed to her Majesty's ministers abroad, instructing them to communicate to the Governments to which they were respectively accredited, an Order of Council of the 7th March, declaring her Majesty's intentions in respect to the limitations under which the operations of her Majesty's forces in the China sea would be carried on.

ORDER IN COUNCIL.

Whereas in the event of hostilities commencing between her Majesty and her august ally the Emperor of the French on the one hand, and the Emperor of China on the other hand, it is the intention and desire of her Majesty, and of his Majesty the Emperor of the French, to act during such hostilities in strict conformity with the declaration respecting maritime law signed by the plenipotentiaries of Great Britain, Austria, France, Prussia, Russia, Sardinia, and Turkey, assembled in Congress at Paris, and dated April 16, 1856; and whereas her Majesty is willing to extend the benefits of the said declaration of Paris to all Powers which may be neutral in the said hostilities:

Now her Majesty is pleased, by and with the advice of her Privy Council, to order, and it is hereby ordered, that so far as regards the ships of any neutral Power, the flag of any such Power shall cover the enemy's goods, with the exception of contraband of war; so that no goods of enemies found on board any ship belonging to the subjects of such neutral

Power, or to those inhabiting within the dominions of any such Power, and duly entitled to use the flag of such Power, shall be subject to capture or condemnation by reason only of such goods being enemies' goods; all other liabilities to capture and condemnation, respectively, of enemies' goods and neutral ships being reserved and remaining in all respects as before the declaration of the said Congress at Paris, of the 16th April, 1856.

And it is hereby further ordered, that neutral goods, with the exception of contraband of war, shall not be liable to capture under the enemy's flag, by reason only of said goods being under the enemy's flag; all other liabilities to capture and condemnation of neutral goods being reserved, and remaining in all respects as before the declaration of the said Congress at Paris of the 16th April, 1856: Provided always, and it is hereby ordered, that nothing herein contained shall be applicable to, or shall be construed, deemed, or taken so as to operate or apply to or in favour of any person, ship, or goods whatsoever, which may be captured for breaking or attempting to break, or which may be lawfully adjudged to have broken or attempted to break, any blockade maintained by a force sufficient really to prevent access to the coast of the enemy; but that all such persons, ships, and goods, may be duly taken cognizance of, proceeded upon, adjudicated, dealt with, and treated, in all respects and to all purposes, according to the course of Admiralty and the law of nations, as if this order had never been made, anything heretofore to the contrary in anywise notwithstanding.

And it is further ordered, that, notwithstanding the existence of hostilities between her Majesty and her august ally on the one hand, and the Emperor of China on the other hand, and during the continuance thereof, all and every the subjects of her Majesty and of her august ally the Emperor of the French, shall and may, during such hostilities, freely trade at and with all ports and places wheresoever situate in the dominions of China, and also with all persons whomsoever, as well subjects of the Emperor of China as others residing or trading within any part of the dominions of the said Emperor.

And it is further ordered and declared that if any Chinese ship or vessel shall be captured or taken by any of her Majesty's vessels or forces, having on board any merchandize or goods being the *bonâ fide* property of any subject or subjects of her Majesty or of her august ally the Emperor of the French, such merchandize or goods shall not be subject or liable to be condemned as prize, but shall, on due proof of such property, as aforesaid, be restored to the owner or owners thereof: provided always, and it is hereby ordered, that this order shall not apply, or be construed, deemed, or taken to operate to, or apply to, or in favour of, contraband of war, or to trading in supply of, or dealing with, any articles or things which it may be declared by her Majesty and her august ally shall be deemed and taken as contraband of war, or to any trading or attempt to trade with places subject to effective blockade by the ships or fleets of her Majesty and her august ally, or either of them; and it is further ordered, that her Majesty's officers and subjects, and especially her Majesty's courts and officers exercising any prize jurisdiction, do take notice hereof, and govern themselves accordingly.

WM. L. BATHURST.

On the 26th June Lord John Russell received a despatch from Mr. Bruce, sending a copy of the convention for the occupation of Chusan, concluded between the allied commanders-in-chief and the Chinese authorities in charge of the island, as follows:—

The commanders of the allied forces of England and France, now assembled before Chusan, having this day, through the intervention of their officers, summoned by mutual agreement the civil and military authorities of the town of Ting-hae and the island of Chusan to give up to the hands of the said general officers, the arms, military posts, and the government of the said island and town; and the Chinese authorities having consented to it, seeing that any attempt at resistance to so powerful a naval and military force would only cause an useless effusion of blood, and a lamentable destruction of property; it has been agreed:—

1. That the delivery of the said arms and government should take place under a neutral flag, in order to conciliate the respective positions of the English and French commanders; that for want of a neutral flag at this moment at Chusan, the Peninsular and Oriental Company's steam-ship the *Granada* should be considered as such.

2. That every Chinese military body should cease to exist from henceforth, and that the men composing the said corps shall be free to go wherever they please.

3. That four magistrates, two for England, and the other two for France, shall be nominated in order to control all the acts of the constituted authorities of the island.

4. That the civil mandarins shall be maintained in the exercise of their functions, whether municipal, judicial, administrative, or pertaining to revenue, under the surveillance and control of the four English and French magistrates, themselves placed under the superior authority of the allied commanders.

5. That all military posts shall be occupied by the combined English and French troops.

6. That order shall be maintained in the town and the island by the allied troops, supported by a police selected from their ranks.

7. That the arms and munitions delivered up by the Chinese authorities shall be taken

[311]

care of by the allies, to be restored in the same state in which they shall be when the island is given back to the Chinese Government.

Done in triplicate at Ting-hae, this 21st day of April, 1860.

J. HOPE GRANT, *Lieutenant-General, Commanding Military Forces in China.*

LEWIS T. JONES, *Rear-Admiral Commanding the British Naval Forces at Chusan.*

T. PAGE, *Contre-Amiral Commandant les Forces Françaises Navales et Militaires.*

On the 5th August, 1860, Lord John Russell received a despatch from Mr. Bruce, enclosing copy of a letter from Consul Meadows, of Shanghai, respecting the movements of the rebels, and stating that the Chinese authorities had demanded British and French assistance in protecting Shanghai, and that steps had been taken for such defence.

On the 10th September Lord John Russell received from the Earl of Elgin a return of the number of ships of war, transports, and troops for service in the North of China, July 18, 1860. There were in all 51 ships, 41 effective, and 261 guns, besides transports. The military forces were—present and fit for duty at Ta-lien Bay, 30 field officers, 71 captains, 377 other officers, 645 sergeants, 239 trumpeters and drummers, and 10,202 rank and file. On command at Hong Kong, Chusan, &c., 6,894 rank and file, besides the officers. After communications between the commanders-in-chief of the English and French forces, they agreed upon a joint attack on the Takoo forts.

On the 5th October Lord John Russell received from Colonel Foley the following account of the proceedings of the allied forces, agreed upon at a conference of the four commanders-in-chief:—

1st. That the two expeditions leave their respective ports on the morning of the 26th of July, to rendezvous at the point previously fixed upon.

2ndly. Admiral Hope undertakes to place a vessel to indicate the point of rendezvous to the south of which the French fleet is to be anchored, and the English to the north, as before arranged. The vessel at the rendezvous to carry the French flag at the fore, and the English flag at the mizen.

3rdly. Admiral Hope undertakes to have the anchorage off the Peh-tang surveyed in readiness for the arrival of the commanders-in-chief, in order that they may determine the positions of their respective fleets.

It was further agreed upon that the four commanders-in-chief should push on to the place of rendezvous on the 26th instant, and that immediately on arrival they should proceed together to reconnoitre the mouth of the Peh-tang river, and fix upon the place, or places, for the landing of the two forces, it being deemed totally impracticable for the French troops to disembark anywhere to the south of the Peiho forts.

The re-embarkation of the artillery, horses, matériel, &c., is now being actively carried on, and I feel confident, should the weather continue favourable, that the French force will be ready to leave Che-foo on the morning of the 26th instant.

The French force to land will consist of 5,500 men, which includes 500 of the "Infanterie de la Marine" from the ships of war, and six batteries of artillery, making a total of about 6,300 men.

In consequence of greater heat during the past week sickness has been rather on the increase; but on the whole, up to the present date, the health of the French troops has been wonderfully good.

One of the three iron gun-boats brought out in piece on board of the steam-ship *Weser* will be ready to launch to-morrow or next day; but they will not be fitted out in time to take part in the earlier operations about to commence.

And on the 16th the following report of the proceedings of the allied forces was received:—

At 6 A.M. on the 26th, the French fleet, consisting of thirty-two vessels, weighed anchor, left Che-foo, and steamed slowly towards the rendezvous, about twenty miles from the Peh-tang river, where it anchored to the left of the English fleet, on the morning of the 28th ultimo. The commanders-in-chief immediately held a conference, at which it was agreed that the gun-boats should tow the boats with the troops on board into the river, as early as the tide would permit the crossing of the bar, on Tuesday the 31st ultimo. On Sunday afternoon the wind got up, and caused such a heavy swell as to render in difficult for small boats to move about. On Monday both fleets moved to an anchorage about six miles off the river Peh-tang, to be in readiness to disembark the troops the next day. The wind continuing on Tuesday morning, it was considered by the admirals in command imprudent

to put the men into the boats; consequently it was not until 6.30 A.M. on the 1st of August that the order was given, and the troops, consisting of 2,500 French, with four guns, and the same number of English soldiers, commenced disembarking. The whole was admirably managed; the towing vessels crossed the bar without accident or delay, and all were anchored by 2.30 P.M., in the river, about 2,000 yards below the forts.

The two commanders-in-chief landed in the mud, with an escort, and finding it practicable, gave orders for the landing of their respective forces, which was soon effected, the mud at first coming up above their knees, lessening, till at about 500 yards they arrived at some higher and drier ground. About 150 Tartar cavalry were seen watching the operation, but they soon disappeared, and did not trouble us during the night. The troops bivouacked on the driest ground they could find, the greater part of them on a raised causeway (the only approach to the town in the rear of the fort), at the end of which was a bridge, which was taken possession of, and occupied throughout the night, by 400 French and English soldiers. Arrangements were made for the gun-boats to steam up above the forts, as soon as the tide served, and at break of day to open fire upon them, the troops to be held in readiness to escalate, or otherwise assist, as soon as the gun-boats ceased firing. At about 11 o'clock at night Mr. Parkes, having obtained permission from Sir Hope Grant, proceeded, with an officer of the quartermaster-general's department, into the town. He found everything perfectly quiet, reached the gate of the fort, pushed it open, and found the whole place empty.

At 5 A.M. on the 2nd instant, the commanders-in-chief entered the town and fort, and having given orders for a division of the former to be made, the French and English troops took possession of their allotted positions. Several mines discovered in the fort were immediately destroyed, and the place rendered safe. The guns found were of wood encircled with hoops of iron. The fort on the northern bank was taken possession of by French and English sailors. On the 3rd instant a reconnaissance was made, with 2,000 French and English troops, of the country towards the Peiho. A considerable number of Tartar cavalry were found posted at some distance from the town, who immediately opened a fire of jingals, and succeeded in wounding six French and six English soldiers, but they retired directly some guns were brought to bear upon them. An entrenched camp was seen about a mile and a half beyond where the reconnaissance halted. The commanders-in-chief having reconnoitred the ground to their front, and having found it more suitable than any yet seen for manœuvring, the troops returned to their quarters. The disembarking of the rest of the troops, horses, stores, &c., is being proceeded with as quickly as the great distance of the vessels from the town, and the state of the tides, will permit.

Yesterday, the 7th instant, a conference was held on board of the *Coromandel*, at which Admiral Hope agreed to assist Admiral Charner in disembarking the French horses, which would enable the two generals to proceed on Friday next, the 10th, to take possession of the entrenched camp, and establish themselves there, till such time as everything shall be in readiness for the attack of the Peiho forts. The troops are much crowded in the town of Peh-tang, and great difficulty is experienced from the want of water, which has to be brought in the gun-boats a distance of six miles. No vegetables or provisions of any sort are to be procured, as the inhabitants have left the town, and no chance, at present, of any communication with the country people. There has been some very hot weather since our arrival here; still, notwithstanding the scarcity of water, the heat, the stench and filth which is met with at every turn, the health of the troops, I am happy to say, is very good.

On the 31st October Lord John Russell forwarded to Mr. Bruce credentials appointing him her Majesty's Ambassador in China, but instructing him to present them only on his proceeding to reside permanently at Peking, and after Lord Elgin's departure.

On the 2nd November Lord John Russell received a despatch from the Earl of Elgin announcing the appointment of Commissioners Kweiliang and Hang-fuh to treat with the allies. Also copy of a despatch from Sir Hope Grant, with letters from the Governor-General, surrendering the Takoo forts. On the 26th August the Earl of Elgin and the British troops arrived at Tien-tsin.

On the same date Lord John Russell received a despatch from Mr. Bruce, dated Shanghai, September 4th, announcing an attack on the rebels, who had attempted to attack Shanghai. Mr. Bruce enclosed the following interesting account, given by Mr. Holmes, a British American missionary, of a trip he had made to Nanking, extracted from the *North China Herald*:—

Translation.

As your readers will not, probably, be interested in a particular narrative of my journey, it will suffice to say that, leaving Shanghai in a large-sized boat on the 28th of July, we

proceeded up the Yang-tze-kiang from Woo-sung, and after much delay, on account of head winds and a strong current, which ran continually against us after we had reached a point sixty or seventy miles from Woo-sung, we reached Ching-kiang-foo on the 7th of August. We passed this place in the evening with a strong breeze in our favour, which enabled us to stem the swift current. A strong Imperial fleet consisting of lorchas, generally of southern construction, and one foreign vessel, a brig, we found posted here. Our boat was in range of their guns for a distance of two or three miles, and we thought it probable that a shot across our bows would be the signal at some point in our progress that we must stop, and satisfy them before we would be allowed to proceed. In fact, we were somewhat apprehensive that they might send it through our vessel's sides in defiance of the civilized precedent in such cases. We passed on, however, unmolested, and when opposite the foreign brig, it laying further up than the rest, a boat rowed by twelve or fifteen men, with two officers on board, came across and hailed us, asking where we were going. To Nanking we replied, giving them my name, and stating the purpose for which I went—to preach and gain information. I then handed them the boat's letter to look at, at which they seemed partially assured, and afterwards I gave him a note to the commander of the forces at the place, explaining where we were going and the object of our visit; the letter being sealed, they departed with it, apparently satisfied that its contents would be satisfactory, and we proceeded on our way, preferring to hear his Excellency's comments upon it on our return. We ran all night, and next morning, 8th August, at about 9 o'clock, anchored in the mouth of the creek which leads from the river up to the city of Nanking, and abreast the fort or rather walled village situated there. On inquiring for some one with whom we could communicate, I was invited to enter the fort, and on doing so was received by a tall Kwang-sai officer, clothed in a gaudy robe and wearing a brassy looking hat or helmet. He greeted me as his "ocean brother," and drawing me down to a seat beside him in the place of honour, entered at once into conversation. On being informed who I was, and for what I came, he immediately sent a messenger into the city to announce my arrival to the higher authorities. At half-past 3 o'clock P.M. horses were sent by the Chang Wong and an officer to escort us to his house. We found the gates near the river on the northern side of the city all closed, and were obliged to ride outside for about three miles till we reached one of the west gates, where we entered, and after passing about half-a-mile through half-ruined streets reached the Chang Wong's dwelling—a building distinguished from ordinary Chinese establishments only by the large number of its apartments—altogether covering, with intervening courts, near an acre of ground. We were received by a venerable-looking and very polite old man whom we learned to call Pung-ta-jun (his Excellency Mr. Pung). He had been requested by the Chang Wong to entertain us with supper, he said, after which that dignitary would see us. Said Pung was dressed in a long blue robe, and wore a sort of hood with a cape. He was, we learned, an adherent of the Tien Wong's, and was merely present upon this occasion as a sort of representative of his master. His office was something like that of chaplain, according to the account we had of its functions. We found him exceedingly polite and affable, and I thought I could discern some appearance of real religious character, which is more than I can say of any other man I met; for in general it did not appear to me that their religious motives were nearly so strong as those suggested by a rich city to be opened, or dignity to be obtained, which would give to them in turn an establishment like those they now helped to grace. This man, however, spoke freely of his religious faith, and though his ideas were exceedingly crude and mingled with superstition, he appeared to be in earnest. He remarked in course of conversation that we had long had the Gospel, whereas they had had it but a short time, and acknowledged our ability to instruct them in religious matters.

After supper we were led into the presence of the king. We found him seated in a raised recess behind a long table, on which were placed burning candles (it being after dark) and various ornamental articles. He was dressed in a richly embroidered robe, and had on his head a sort of gilded mitre or crown. His officers formed an avenue before him, through which we were led up to a seat in the recess in which he sat himself, while a series of discordances of a most excruciating character were produced by fire-crackers, gonga, and drums outside. On being seated, he began the conversation as follows:—

"'Wha seen sung' (be assured). Foreigners and men of the heavenly kingdom are all brethren. We all believe in the Heavenly Father and Son, and are, therefore, brethren. Is it not so?" I assented, when he proceeded, "The tree has its root, the stream has its fountain, and man has his origin. He is a very wicked man who is unfilial to his earthly parents; how much more he that neglects the Heavenly Father, the giver of all good. He is the Creator of heaven and earth and all things, and yet this Manchu Dynasty, and its adherents, persist in worshipping wooden and stone idols. Are we not right, then, in styling them imps?" I replied that such conduct was, no doubt, very wicked, and yet I questioned the propriety of calling them imps, as they were still living men and might still repent. We, too, were once unbelievers.

He then said something about the people of this world having much intercourse with the spiritual world, the bearing of which I did not see, and after a few passing remarks and questions, he added, "We could not in three days and nights finish talking about religious matters. Have you other matters to speak of?" I then mentioned the object for which I had come, speaking of the deep interest which had long been felt in their cause by foreign

Christians; how we had hoped and feared as to the purity of their doctrines, and as to their success if they were indeed Christians.

After receiving from him assurances of their gratification at my arrival, we retired. We were visited next morning by Mr. Pung, who remained with me for some time, discoursing upon the many proofs which they had of the truth of their doctrines, one of which had occurred to himself on this wise: on the 20th day of the 9th month of last year there was a fall of snow, and his little girl called his attention to the fact that in one spot there had fallen a number of drops of snow in the shape of the "mei" flower; afterwards in the same spot fell some drops in the shape of stars, and then again a perfect cloud of little "mei" flowers. They had also had something similar to Pharaoh's dream of fat and lean kine.

The Tien Wong, we were informed on the evening of our arrival, was much gratified at our coming, and wished to see us next morning. We thought best, therefore, to remark at once that we would not be able to comply with his etiquette if it required kneeling. This led to some discussion among the officers, and a consultation with Chang Wong, upon which it was decided that my presentation would be deferred one day in order to arrange the matter. On the morning of the 9th the following edicts, whose issue was occasioned by our visit, but which appear to be intended for the instruction of "outer barbarians" generally, came down from the Tien Wong and his son:—

"Edict from Tien Wong.—(Translation.)"

"I, Tien Wong, issue an edict for the information of such leaders of soldiers as there may be in the outer tribes. The ten thousand nations should submit to the Heavenly Father, Lord above, Supreme Father. The ten thousand nations should submit to the Saviour of the world, the Great Brother, Christ: heaven, earth and man, the past, the present, and the future, are all then at peace. The Father formerly descended into the world and proclaimed his laws with reference to the present time. The Elder Brother formerly bore the sins of men, calling the knife to slay the evil spirits. The Elder Brother had previously said, 'The kingdom of Heaven comes near and it will surely arrive.' The Father and the Elder Brother have descended upon earth and established the heavenly kingdom, and have taken me and the junior lord to regulate affairs appertaining to this world. Father, Son, and Royal Grandson are together Lords of the new heaven and earth. The Saviour and the junior lord are sons of the Heavenly Father, Shang-ti; also the Great Brother Christ's Son, and my Son, is Lord. The Father and the Elder Brother, together with me, three persons, constitute one. They have truly commanded the junior lord to be the head of the ten thousand nations. Know all of you, your eastern and western kings, and that the holy will of the Supreme and of Christ are given me through them, that I may from them thence take the people up to heaven and lead them to the heavenly abode. In ancient times, and at present heretofore, and hereafter, all submit to the Heavenly Father. All 'neath heaven are happy in ascending together to the heavenly capital and to the heavenly palace. The Father and the Elder Brother's precepts are obediently handed down through all ages. The Father laboured six days, and all should glorify the great Heavenly Supreme. In the year Tien-yow, the Father sent and took me up to heaven. The Elder Brother and I will, in person, expel the serpent, the devil, and cast him into hell. In the year Yuh-shun, the Father and Elder Brother, descended into the world, in order, through me and the junior lord, to establish endless peace. The Gospel has long been preached—you now behold true happiness and glory. The Father and Elder Brother, merciful and loving, are truly omnipresent. Let all rulers and people beneath the heavens rejoice and be glad. Thus I decree."

To the above translation, in which, as in those that follow, I have availed myself of a number of suggestions kindly made by the Rev. M. S. Culbertson, it will be well, perhaps, to add a few comments given us when we first read it at Nanking. By "leaders of soldiers," in the first sentence, is meant the chiefs of the foreign tribes, or, in other words, the heads of foreign nations. The "junior lord" is a son of Tien Wong, who is now proclaimed to be the adopted son of Jesus. He is said to be about twelve or fourteen years of age. "The heavenly capital" is Nanking, and the "heavenly palace" is the dwelling of his Majesty Hung Siu-Tsuen, which are the great centres around which radiate the rest of the terrestrial creation. The reason given for these edicts being addressed to foreigners generally was that they would serve equally well to inform me personally, if so addressed, as to embrace the opportunity to inform all concerned.

"First Edict of the 'Junior Lord.'—(Translation.)"

"In obedience to my Heavenly Grandfather, my Heavenly Father, and my Father, I issue an edict to inform the outer tribes. I commend you because you glorify the Supreme true God. I commend you because, with a faithful heart, you trust in Christ. I commend you because you look toward heaven and the true Lord. I commend you that now, on your return to the capital, you faithfully show gratitude to the nation. I commend you in that you support the cause of Heaven by destroying the idols. I commend you in that with one heart you support the heavenly kingdom. I commend you for having a determination to promote peace. I commend you in that you are indeed a leader of heavenly soldiers. I commend you for the toil you undergo in preaching the Gospel. My Grandfather, my (adopted) Father, my Father, and myself, will see you. In supporting the

cause of Heaven and repaying this favour to the nation, let there be no change. By complying with this edict you will acknowledge that we are the peaceful heavenly kingdom, that the ten thousand nations should submit to the Heavenly Father; this is true doctrine. All should bring forth the fruits of faith, that they may appear before the Supreme through Christ's blood poured out. With an earnest heart attend ye to heavenly affairs. Write your meritorious acts, when you come to the palace, and let me know them. Those having great merit will have a great reward. The Gospel has long been preached, it is now fulfilled. Thus I decree."

On the evening of the same day the Chang Wong's chief officer conferred with us again as to the etiquette to be observed when presented to the chief. Would I kneel? No. Would I put on a yellow robe and a hood prepared for me? No, I would put on my clothes, such as I would wear when presented to my own country's Wong, whom I had several times seen, and treat Tien Wong as I did him. Would I receive a title and rank which Tien Wong proposed to bestow? This I explained would not be consistent with my calling, and declined it. Would I bow to the Supreme when they all did? I might, and might not; would not promise; that was not my duty to Tien Wong, but to God himself. I suggested the rule that every nation should use its own etiquette as the only one that would always work without difficulty. He then proceeded to inform his master of the result of the interview, upon which they concluded to delay another day in order to hear what Tien Wong himself would say to my style of etiquette. After this, the Chang Wong invited me to see him again. Being quartered in his house, it was quite convenient to go in at any time. He remarked that the evening before had been so warm, and so many were present, that we had not enjoyed a satisfactory conversation. He then proceeded to give an outline of Christianity, which, though very loose and general, contained little that could be objected to:—God, the Creator of all things, Jesus, his son, the Saviour of the world, the Holy Spirit—the words correct in the main, though I afterwards became convinced that neither he, nor any of them, had any adequate idea of their true signification. "Was this what we believed also?" he asked, when he had finished his recapitulation. I gave him to understand that I had no objection to make to what he had said, but that they appeared to have other doctrines which I did not understand the import of; for example, Mr. Pung had spoken of worshipping the Heavenly Father, the Heavenly Brother, and the Tien Wong, and of these three being one. To this he simply replied that Mr. Pung had preached erroneously.

August 10.—Spent the day mostly in conversation with visitors, among whom was a brother of the Chang Wong, and one of the Chung Wong, whose royal curiosity was excited by the visit of the "Ocean brother." We were attended by a number of boys, all of whom had, as we learned, been carried away from their parents: some had been in their present situation a number of years, some but a short time. It appears to be their policy to take all the boys they can get, and they use them for servants while they are small, and for soldiers when they are large enough to fight. I asked one of them if he would like to return to his parents again. He replied that he would, but if he tried to escape the consequence would be what he indicated by drawing his hand across his neck—his head would be taken off. In the course of the day there came another edict from the junior lord, who is now, as we were informed, the temporal representative of the dynasty, his father's office being at present exclusively spiritual. Its main object was to inform us that he and his father had concluded to see us. The following is a translation of it:—

"Second Edict of the 'Junior Lord.'—(Translation.)"

"In obedience to the command of my Heavenly Grandfather, my Heavenly Father, and my Father, I issue an edict to inform the Western Ocean outer tribes. You truly honour your Father, and know Christ the Saviour of the world. You are indeed sent of Heaven, and are a leader of soldiers. If indeed, faithful and true, and if you come at the command of Heaven, with a strong heart, uphold the cause of Heaven and promote peace. Faithfully honour Grandfather, (adopted) Father, Father, and me. If true and faithful in repaying your obligations to the nation, you will be faithful and true. I will commend you as faithful if you are indeed patient in faithfulness. In preaching the Gospel for a long time, yours is a great merit, at which Grandfather, (adopted) Father, Father, and myself are all pleased. When you behold Grandfather and Father, there will be bestowed a high rank. I will commend you if with a faithful heart you honour the Supreme. If you all know the Grandfather and Father, the way to Heaven is open. Earnestly, faithfully, and with a strong heart ascend the heavenly kingdom, and Heaven will bestow upon you a rank the highest of ten thousand thousand. Thus I decree."

At night (August 10) we witnessed their worship. It occurred at the beginning of their Sabbath, midnight of Friday. The place of worship was the Chang Wong's private audience-room. He was himself seated in the midst of his attendants—no females were present. They first sung, or rather chanted, after which a written prayer was read and burned by an officer, upon which they rose and sang again and then separated. The Chang Wong sent for me again before he left his seat, and asked me if I understood their mode of worship. I replied that I had just seen it for the first time. He asked what our mode was. I replied that we endeavoured to follow the rules laid down in the Scriptures, and thought all departure there-

from to be erroneous. He then proceeded to explain the ground upon which they departed from this rule. The Tien Wong had been to Heaven, he said, and had seen the Heavenly Father. Our revelation had been handed down for 1800 years; they had received a new, additional revelation, and upon this they could adopt a different mode of worship. I replied that if the Tien Wong had obtained a revelation, we could determine its genuineness by comparing it with the Scriptures. If they coincided, they might be parts of the same; if not, the new revelation could not be true, as God did not change. He suggested that there might be a sort of disparagement, which was yet appropriate, as in the Chinese garment, which is buttoned at one side. To this comparison I objected, as comparing a piece of man's work with God's work. Ours were little and imperfect; his great and glorious. We should compare God's works with each other. The sun did not rise in the east to day, and in the west to-morrow. Winter and summer did not exchange their respective characters. Neither would the Heavenly Father capriciously make a law at one time, and contradict it at another. His Majesty seemed rather disconcerted at thus being carried out of the usual track in which he was in the habit of discoursing, and we parted, proposing to talk further upon the subject at another time.

August 11.—At daylight we started for the Tien Wong's palace. The procession was headed by a number of brilliantly coloured banners, after which followed a troop of armed soldiers; then came the Chang Wong in a large sedan, covered with yellow satin and embroidery, and borne by eight coolies; next came the foreigner on horseback in company with the Chang Wong's chief officer, followed by a number of other officers on horseback. On our way several of the other kings who were in the city fell in ahead of us with similar retinues. Music added discord to the scene, and curious gazers lined the streets on either side, who had no doubt seen kings before, but probably never witnessed such an apparition as that which accompanied him. Reaching at length the palace of the Tien Wong, a large building resembling very much the best of the Confucian temples, though of much greater size than these generally are. We entered the outer gate and proceeded to a large building to the eastward of the palace proper, and called the "Morning Palace." Here we were presented to the Tsau Wong and his son, with several others. After resting a little while, during which two of the attendants testified their familiarity with, and consequent irreverence for, the royal palace by concluding a misunderstanding in fisticuffs, we proceeded to the audience-hall of the Tien Wong. I was here presented to the Tien Wong's two brothers, two nephews, and son-in-law, in addition to those whom I had before met at the "Morning Palace." They were seated at the entrance of a deep recess, over the entrance of which was written, "Illustrious heavenly door." At the end of this recess, far within, was pointed out to us his Majesty Tien Wong's seat, which was as yet vacant. The company awaited for some time the arrival of the Western King, whose presence seemed to be necessary before they could proceed with the ceremonies. That dignitary, a boy of twelve or fourteen, directly made his appearance, and entering at the "Holy heavenly gate," took his place with the royal group. They then proceeded with their ceremonies as follows:—First they kneeled with their faces to the Tien Wong's seat, and uttered a prayer to the Heavenly Brother, then kneeling with their faces in the opposite direction, they prayed to the Heavenly Father, after which they again kneeled with their faces to the Tien Wong's seat, and in like manner repeated a prayer to him. They then concluded by singing in a standing position. A roast pig and the body of a goat were lying with other articles on tables in the outer court, and a fire was kept burning on a stone altar in front of the Tien Wong's seat, in a sort of court which intervened between it and the termination of the recess leading to it. He had not yet appeared, and though all waited for him for some time after the conclusion of the ceremonies, he did not appear at all. He had probably changed his mind, concluding that it would be a bad precedent to allow a foreigner to see him without first signifying submission to him; or it may be that he did not mean to see me after learning the stubborn nature of our principles; but, anxious to have us carry away some account of the grandeur and magnificence of his court, had taken this mode of making an appropriate impression, leaving the imagination to supply the vacant chair which his own ample dimensions should have filled. We retired to the "Morning Palace" again, where kings, princes, foreigners, and all were called upon to ply the "nimble lads" upon a breakfast which had been prepared for us, after which we retired in the order in which we came.

In the course of the afternoon, after our return, the Chang Wong invited me in to see him privately. I was led through a number of rooms and intervening courts into one of his private sitting-rooms, where he sat clothed loosely in white silk, with a red kerchief round his head and a jewel in front. He was seated in an easy chair, and fanned by a pretty slipshod girl. Another similar chair was placed near him, on which he invited me to be seated, and at once began to question me about foreign machinery, &c. He had been puzzled with a map with parallel lines running each way, said to have been made by foreigners, which he asked me to explain. He then submitted to my inspection a spy-glass and a music-box, asking various questions about each, evidently supposing every foreigner to be an adept in the construction of such articles. After this he became quite familiar, and was ready to see me at any hour. At the next interview, which occurred on the day following, I referred him to various passages in the New Testament, which conflicted with the doctrines of Tien Wong.

Found it impossible to gain his attention to these matters. He was ready enough to declaim in set speech about all men being brethren, but it was easy to perceive that his religion, such as it was, had little hold upon his heart. He confessed carelessly that the revelation of Tien Wong did not agree with the Bible, but said that of Tien Wong, being later, was more authoritative. I found him but little disposed to have his faith tested, either by reason or revelation, or, indeed, to think about it all when it was abstracted from public affairs.

The two days which yet elapsed before our departure were spent mostly in conversation with various persons connected with the establishment of the Chang Wong and other kings. These conversations, informal and desultory, gave me an opportunity to ascertain something of the practical working of Hung Siu-tuen's principles upon the masses of his adherents. I could not perceive that there was any elevation of character or sentiment to distinguish them from the great mass of the Chinese population; indeed, the effect of his pretensions to a commission to "slay the imp" appears to have annihilated in their minds all consciousness of crimes committed against those who are not of their own faith. To rob and murder an adherent of the Manchou dynasty is a virtuous deed. To carry away his wife or daughter for infamous purposes, or his son to train up for their army, are all legitimate acts. We questioned some of the boys who were sent to wait upon us as to their nativity; some were from Ngang-hu-ai, some from Hupeh, some from Honan, and others from Kiang-si. Wherever their armies had overrun the country they had captured the boys and led them away with them. The large proportion of comely-looking women to be seen looking out at the doors and windows showed the summary way in which these celestial soldiers provided themselves with wives.

Anxious to gain some further insight into the views of their chief, and hoping to call his attention to some of his errors and inconsistencies, I copied, with the aid of my teacher who accompanied me, a number of passages from the New Testament, and prefacing them with the remark that they were passages which foreign Christians would find among the most difficult to reconcile with the doctrines which he taught, and remarking that if he had been in communication with the Heavenly Father he would doubtless be both able and willing to explain them, addressed them to Tien Wong. The principal passages were the following, with the subjoined questions accompanying them:—John i. 1: Christ is here pronounced to be God; does Tien Wong claim to be God or man? Matt. xxii. 29, 30: How is this to be reconciled with the statement that the Western King has contracted a marriage in the other world? Matt. xx. 25-26: How is this to be reconciled with the Tien Wong's assumption of authority in spiritual matters? John iii. 13; Gal. i. 8; Rev. xxii. 18, 19: How can Tien Wong have another revelation? This document the Chang Wong was afraid to present to his chief. He returned it to me, and I supposed that I should hardly find a man bold enough to keep it in his possession.

On Wednesday (15th August) we had determined to return. On announcing our intention we were entreated to remain a few days longer. He also invited me to come back again, and bring with me my family, offering to give me a place in his own house. On our departure a sum of money was offered us to "buy tea," as it was stated, "on our way home." This we declined, and when assured that it was simply the usual present made to a guest on his departure, informed him of the evil constructions that might be put upon the reception of money, especially such a sum, however pure the motive might be. He insisted that he would have no face if he sent away a guest without making him some present, and substituted a piece of silk, which, with several little articles received before, are preserved as memorials of the visit. A present of a small globe, with several other foreign articles, were very gladly received on his part.

On returning to our boat we were called upon again by his Excellency Mr. Pung. He had not seen us for several days, because, as he said, being an adherent of the Tien Wong he could not freely go out and in at the Chang Wong's without some special errand. I had at once drew him into conversation about the Tien Wong's doctrines, and showed him the paper which I had prepared but could not have presented to him. He seemed quite startled when he saw the difficulties propounded, and especially at a dilemma which was further added with reference to the Western King's pretended marriage with the daughter of the Heavenly Father. Clutching the paper eagerly, he asked me if he might keep it. If Tien Wong had erred in anything he might change it, he said. We were, of course, very glad to leave it with him. So bidding him and Nanking good-by, we confided ourselves once more to the bosom of the "Ocean's Son," and receiving a friendly visit from some of the Imperial officers as we passed Ching-kiang, reached Shanghai with about forty hours' sailing.

I might add many miscellaneous items of information gathered while in the insurgent, capital, but as my communication has already reached an undue length, I shall content myself with a few general reflections upon the state and prospects of this movement. I went to Nanking predisposed to receive a favourable impression; indeed, the favourable impressions of a previous visit to Soo-chow led me to undertake this journey. I came away with my views entirely changed. I had hoped that their doctrines, though crude and erroneous, might notwithstanding embrace some of the elements of Christianity. I found to my sorrow nothing of Christianity but its names, falsely applied, applied to a system of revolting idolatry: whatever they may be in their books, and whatever they may have believed in times past, I could

not escape the conclusion that such is the system which they now promulgate, and by which the character of their people is being moulded. Their idea of God is distorted until it is inferior, if possible, to that entertained by other Chinese idolators. The idea which they entertain of a Saviour is likewise low and sensual, and his honours are shared by another. The Eastern King is the Saviour from disease as He is the Saviour from sin. The Holy Spirit they make a nonentity. The whole transformation may be concisely stated in the language of Scripture:—"They have changed the truth of God into a lie, and they worship the creature more than the Creator." Among the features of their theology that shocked me most may be mentioned the following:—They speak of the wife of the Heavenly Father, whom they call Tien-Ma (Heavenly Mother); and of the wife of Jesus, whom they call Tien-Sau (Heavenly Sister-in-law); also the Senior Western King has married a sister of Jesus, the daughter of the Heavenly Father, and is hence called Te Sue (Supreme Son-in-law). With reference to this last union, I learn that some well-informed persons are disposed to believe that the defunct Western King was simply a brother-in-law of the insurgent chief, and that in giving him the above title they do not intend to indicate a divine alliance. I can only say with reference to this, that in all my conversation with the rebels, although I used various arguments to convince them that they could not with propriety speak of the Heavenly Father having a natural daughter, no one denied that this was their meaning. She was once a woman living upon earth (according to my teacher's account, who pressed the inquiry further than I did), but like the Saviour, she came down from Heaven, and was the daughter of the Heavenly Father, as Jesus was his son. Furthermore, they do hold that Tien Wong is the son of God as really and in the same manner that Jesus is. Some of their most intelligent men, with whom I conversed, defended their worshipping him upon precisely this ground:—"He is the Son of God, and in worshipping him we worship God," they said. That this worship is of the same character as that addressed to Jesus and to the Heavenly Father there can be no doubt. No one defended it upon the ground that it was not. On the other hand, they defended it upon the ground of his claim to divine worship. The assumptions which he makes in his proclamation, it appears to me, moreover, would unmistakably indicate the kind of worship he would demand. The son of the chief is likewise a member of the divine family. He is the adopted son of Jesus, and is appointed to be the head of all the nations. So it is stated in the edict translated above, and so it was explained to us by those familiar with their theories. Polygamy is another dark feature of their system. The Tien Wong has married about thirty wives, and has in his harem about 100 women. The other kings are limited to thirty. The other high officers are also allowed a plurality of wives.

I had hoped, too, that though crude and erroneous in their notions, they would yet be ready to stand an appeal to the Bible, and to be instructed by those competent to expound its truths. Here, too, I was disappointed. They have a new revelation which is to be their criterion of truth, and are quite competent to instruct us. In fact, they bear in their hands a divine decree to which we are to submit, according to their account. To be sure, they invite missionaries to come—they invited me to remain, or to return and remain with them. But it is easy to see how long they would be willing to tolerate a man who would preach doctrines radically opposed to those which they themselves promulgate, and upon which they found their claim to the obedience of China and the rest of the world. Their willingness, if indeed they are willing to receive Christian missionaries among them, is doubtless founded upon a misapprehension of their true character. They suppose that the missionary will prove an instrument which they can bend to suit their own purposes. Exceptions might, perhaps, be made in favour of individuals—it is of those who hold the reins of power that I speak.

The city of Nanking is in a ruinous condition. It would be no exaggeration to say that half the houses have been destroyed. The country around is not half cultivated. Provisions are very scarce and expensive. Their trade is very limited. We observed instances in which workmen were compelled to labour without compensation. All indicates a policy that has little regard to the welfare of the people, or to any interests other than those immediately connected with war, and with the indulgence of their rulers.

The present state of their political affairs would indicate that Hung Siu-tsuen's career must close before the present dynasty can be supplanted. His horrible doctrines, which had served to break down every distinction between right and wrong in the minds of his soldiers, and send them forth to perform every enormity without remorse, have secured him the lasting hatred of the masses of the people. The scenes of internal discord which so nearly proved their destruction a few years since would doubtless be enacted again, and upon a large scale, when, with their enemies vanquished, they came to a final division of the spoils. One of their most popular generals, Shir-ta-ki, is now the leader of what will, in all probability, prove a rival rebellion. He left Nanking accompanied by a large army, without the leave of the Tien Wong, and it is said disbelieves his doctrine. He is described as a good man, who will not kill, but strives to conciliate the people; is revered by both soldiers and people, and preaches that "he is a good man who acts the good man." He now holds the capital of the province of Sz'chuen, and probably has control of as much territory and as large a population as Tien Wong himself. They have as yet come to no open rupture, but it is doubtful if he will ever come again under the sway of the present chief. The pretensions of Hung Siu-tsuen must also, sooner or later, if he continues at the head, bring him into collision with

foreign powers, in which case, one of the claims which he founds upon his character as a religious teacher would have to be yielded. His prestige thus destroyed, it is doubtful whether his influence would survive it. In fine, while we are not without hopes that God will so overrule this movement as to bring great good out of it, we find little or nothing in the character of the leaders with whom we have met, or in the doctrines which they believe, upon which to found a hope except as the "wrath of man shall praise Him."

On the 13th November Lord John Russell received from the Earl of Elgin copy of the draft convention agreed to with Commissioners Kweyliang and Hang, with the communication, however, that as the commissioners had not sufficient powers to negotiate, the convention was abandoned. Some further negotiation afterwards took place with Commissioners Trai and Muh, but with no effect; and the forces advanced, and attacked and captured the Tartar camps situated near the direct road to Peking. Whilst these negotiations were pending with Prince Trai and his colleagues, Mr. Parkes and Mr. Wade, and other officers, eight in number, who had conducted the negotiations, and were the bearers of the communications, were detained at Peking. And it was not till energetic steps were taken by the allied armies that the same were sent back to the camp.

On the 1st December Lord John Russell received a despatch from the Earl of Elgin, announcing that Peking had surrendered; and on the 27th December he received a further despatch, stating the reasons which induced him to cause the destruction of the Summer Palace, as follows:—

I confess that I attached more importance to the impression which we might leave behind us on our departure from this place, than to any formal stipulations by which the Chinese authorities might bind themselves. It was necessary, therefore, to discover some act of retribution and punishment sufficiently severe to produce the required effect, and yet capable of such rapid execution that it would be possible after it had been accomplished, to complete, before the 1st of November, the treaties of peace, and such further measures as might be immediately necessary to put them into operation. This had to be done without attacking Peking, or anything within Peking, and in such a manner as to make the blow fall on the emperor, who was clearly responsible for the crime committed; without, however, so terrifying his brother, whom he had left behind him to represent him, as to drive him from the field.

The destruction of the Yuen-ming-yuen palace, coupled with the exaction, as a step preliminary to negotiations, and in name of compensation to the sufferers, of such a sum of money as could be raised on the spot by the Government, seemed to me to be the only combination which fulfilled all these conditions. I had also at one time resolved to require that a monument should be erected at the expense of the Chinese Government, stating the circumstances of the arrest and murder of the British subjects illegally captured, who had died from the effects of their ill-treatment in prison, and the penalty which had been inflicted for the deed; but this proposal I finally abandoned for reasons which I have explained elsewhere.

As the destruction of Yuen-ming-yuen is, however, an act to which exception may, with great apparent reason, be taken, it is my duty before closing this despatch to say a few words respecting the only modes of inflicting a specific punishment for the crime in question, which, limited as were my means of action for the reasons above stated, I could have adopted as substitutes for that measure.

I might, perhaps, have demanded a large sum of money, not as compensation for the sufferers, but as a penalty inflicted on the Chinese Government. But, independently of the objection in principle to making a high crime of this nature a mere money question, I hold on this point the opinion which is, I believe, entertained by all persons, without exception, who have investigated the subject, that, in the present disorganized state of the Chinese Government, to obtain large pecuniary indemnities from it is simply impossible, and that all that can be done practically in the matter is, to appropriate such a portion of the customs' revenue as will still leave to it a sufficient interest in that revenue to induce it to allow the natives to continue to trade with foreigners. It is calculated that it will be necessary to take 40 per cent. of the gross customs' revenue of China for about four years in order to procure payment of the indemnities already claimed by Baron Gros and me, under instructions from your lordship and the French Government.

Embarrassing questions respecting the occupation of Chinese territory are involved in this arrangement, and I do not think that it would be advisable to bind the Chinese Government by engagements which would cause the term of liquidation of these indemnities to be indefinitely extended.

Or, I might have required that the persons guilty of cruelty to our countrymen, or of the violation of a flag of truce, should be surrendered. But if I had made this demand in general

terms, some miserable subordinates would, probably, have been given up, whom it would have been difficult to pardon, and impossible to punish. And if I had specified Sang-ko-lin-sin, of whose guilt in violating a flag of truce evidence sufficient to ensure his condemnation by a court-martial could be furnished, I should have made a demand which, it may be confidently affirmed, the Chinese Government would not have conceded, and mine could not have enforced. I must add that, throwing the responsibility for the acts of Government in this way on individuals resembles too closely the Chinese mode of conducting war to approve itself altogether to my judgment. Having, therefore, to the best of my judgment, examined the question in all its bearings, I came to the conclusion that the destruction of Yuen-ming-yuen was the least objectionable of the several courses open to me, unless I could have reconciled it to my sense of duty to suffer the crime which had been committed to pass practically unavenged. I had reason, moreover, to believe that it was an act which was calculated to produce a greater effect in China, and on the Emperor, than persons who look on from a distance may suppose.

It was the Emperor's favourite residence, and its destruction could not fail to be a blow to his pride as well as to his feelings. To this place, as appears from the depositions of the Sikh troopers, copies of which were enclosed in despatch to your lordship of the 13th of October, he brought our hapless countrymen in order that they might undergo their severest tortures within its precincts. Here have been found the horses and accoutrements of the troopers seized, the decorations torn from the breast of a gallant French officer, and other effects belonging to the prisoners. As almost all the valuables had already been taken from the palace, the army would go there, not to pillage, but to mark, by a solemn act of retribution, the horror and indignation with which we were inspired by the perpetration of a great crime. The punishment was one which would fall, not on the people, who may be comparatively innocent, but exclusively on the Emperor, whose direct personal responsibility for the crime committed is established, not only by the treatment of the prisoners at Yuen-ming-yuen, but also by the edict enclosed in my despatch of the 22nd October, in which he offers a pecuniary reward for the heads of foreigners, adding, that he is ready to expend all his treasure in these wages of assassination.

On the 27th December Lord John Russell received from the Earl of Elgin copy of the treaty signed and sealed, a similar treaty having been concluded between France and China. The events which preceded the conclusion of the treaty were described as follows by Colonel Foley:—

On the 10th October a letter was sent to the authorities in Peking by the two commanders-in-chief, in which they demanded that the north gate, opposite to where the French army is encamped, should be given up, to be occupied by a force of 200 French and English soldiers. In the event of refusal the walls to be breached and the city entered by force. Whereas, if the authorities agreed to the demand the troops would be prevented from entering the city, and no pillaging would be allowed.

Up to 12 o'clock, P.M., on Saturday, the 13th instant, was given for a reply.

The commanders-in-chief immediately ordered batteries to be erected and armed within a short distance of the city walls in case of refusal.

On Friday evening an answer was received from the city authorities, in which they agreed to give up the gate in question; but it does not appear that the Chinese Government had anything to say in the matter. Arrangements having been made early on Saturday, the 13th instant, a force of 200 French and English took peaceable possession of the gate at 12 P.M. on that day.

In the meantime intelligence of the death of several of the prisoners arrived, some of them having died, I grieve to say, under the savage ill-treatment they had experienced.

The bodies of Mr. de Norman, Lieutenant Anderson, Mr. Bowlby (correspondent of the *Times*), one English soldier, and twelve Sikhs, have been sent in, also those of Colonel Grandchamp, M. Ader, Intendent Dubut, and three French soldiers. All are now accounted for (thirteen Sikhs having returned alive), excepting Captain Brabazon, Royal Artillery, Abbé Deluc, and a French soldier, but there is every reason to suppose they were murdered after the failure of the treacherous affair of the 18th of September.

The interment of the English bodies received took place in the Russian cemetery, outside of the north wall, on the morning of the 17th of October, nearly all the officers of the French army of duty attending. It is General de Montauban's intention to have the bodies of the French officers and soldiers interred within the precincts of the French Catholic chapel, inside the city walls.

On the 15th instant the commanders-in-chief met, and agreed that they could not stop in the neighbourhood of Peking after the 1st of November.

On the 16th instant Sir Hope Grant sent an English force to Yuen-ming-yuen and burnt all the numerous buildings in the place.

On the 17th instant letters were sent by the English and French plenipotentiaries respectively to Prince Kung, the Imperial commissioner, in which they demanded that the treaty should be immediately agreed to, and further, that 300,000 taels should be paid to the English and 200,000 taels to the French; these sums to be devoted as a sort of indemnity to the

families of the deceased prisoners for the loss occasioned by their deaths, and to the survivors for the sufferings they had endured; also that an acceptance of these demands should be sent by ten o'clock on the morning of the 20th instant, otherwise the city should be entered by the two forces, and the imperial palace of Peking be burnt to the ground.

Prince Kung sent a letter respectively to the plenipotentiaries early on the morning of the 20th instant to say that he accepted unconditionally all the terms, and that the money for the indemnity for the indignities offered to and murder of the prisoners was ready to be paid. This money was delivered over to the English and French on the 22nd instant.

On the morning of the 24th instant his Excellency Baron Gros proceeded, with an escort of 500 men to take up his residence in the city of Peking. At 2 o'clock P.M. on the same day his Excellency the Earl of Elgin entered the city in state, and having met Prince Kung in a *yamun* fitted up for the occasion, the English treaty was signed.

At 11 o'clock A.M. on the 25th instant his Excellency Baron Gros entered Peking in state, and after the same formalities had been observed as on the 24th the French treaty was signed. Nothing which needs remark took place at the latter ceremony. Prince Kung, I am informed by persons present on both occasions, appeared rather more at ease, or perhaps less alarmed, than he did on the previous day.

The weather has changed very much during the last fortnight, the mornings and evenings being excessively cold, the thermometer showing occasionally as low as freezing point. The health of the troops still continues wonderfully good.

It is General de Montauban's present intention, should nothing occur to prevent him, to leave Peking about the end of the month and proceed to Tien-tsin, where he will remain sufficient time to arrange the location of 2,000 men under General Collinot, then take his departure for Shanghai, which place he intends to make his head-quarters, with the rest of his force, excepting the detachments of Chusan and Che-foo, until he receives further instructions from the minister of war.

On the 9th January, 1861, Lord John Russell addressed to the Earl of Elgin as follows:—

Your excellency's despatches from the 21st to the 31st of October, inclusive, were received at this office on the 28th of December, and have been laid before the Queen, and I am commanded by her Majesty to convey to you her full approbation of your conduct in the various particulars reported in those despatches.

The convention which you concluded with the Prince of Kung on the 24th of October is entirely satisfactory to her Majesty's Government. It records the reparation made by the Emperor of China for his disregard in the previous year of his treaty engagement; it sets her Majesty's Government free from an implied engagement not to insist in all particulars on the fulfilment of those engagements; it imposes upon China a fine in the shape of an augmented rate of indemnity; it affords an additional opening for British trade; it places on a recognized footing the emigration of Chinese coolies, whose services are so important to her Majesty's colonial possessions; it relieves her Majesty's colony of Hong Kong from a source of previous annoyance; and it provides for bringing generally to the knowledge of the Chinese the engagements into which the Emperor has entered towards Great Britain.

These are all solid and real advantages, and coupled with the provisions of the treaty of Tien-tsin, they will, it may be hoped, place the relations between the two countries on a sound footing, and ensure the continuance of peace for a long period to come. For these advantages the country is mainly indebted to your excellency's judgment and prudence both at Tien-tsin and at Peking, supported as they have been, more particularly on the last occasion, by the valour of her Majesty's forces, and by the vigour and determination shown by her Majesty's military and naval commanders acting in co-operation with the forces of the Emperor of the French.

These gratifying results have, indeed, been in no small degree overclouded by the loss of several subjects of her Majesty, both military and civil, captured by treachery, and sinking under the cruelties practised on them by the Chinese into whose hands they fell; yet while deeply lamenting the loss of so many valuable lives, her Majesty, in common with all classes of her subjects, rejoices at the safe release of Mr. Parkes and Mr. Loch from the hardships which they endured in the prison of Peking.

I have had the opportunity of expressing to Mr. Loch in person my gratification at his escape, but I must request your excellency to convey to Mr. Parkes the fullest expression of approval on the part of her Majesty's Government for the constancy and devotion which he exhibited in difficulties and trials of no ordinary description.

It now only remains for me to congratulate your excellency on the successful termination of your mission, and to express a hope that you may have a prosperous return to this country, where your services are highly appreciated, and your devotion to its interests gratefully acknowledged.

On the same date Lord John Russell wrote to Mr. Bruce, that on his taking up his residence in Peking he should not insist upon an audience of the Emperor, but only require to be acknowledged as ambassador.

CHINA.

Treaty of Peace, Friendship, and Commerce, between her Majesty and the Emperor of China. Signed in the English and Chinese languages, at Tien-tsin, June 26, 1858. Ratifications exchanged at Peking, Oct. 24, 1860.

ART. I.—The treaty of peace and amity between the two nations, signed at Nanking on the 29th August, 1842, is hereby renewed and confirmed. The supplementary treaty and general regulations of trade having been amended and improved, and the substance of their provisions having been incorporated in this treaty, the said supplementary treaty and general regulations of trade are hereby abrogated.

ART. II.—For the better preservation of harmony in future, her Majesty the Queen of Great Britain and his Majesty the Emperor of China mutually agree that, in accordance with the universal practice of great and friendly nations, her Majesty the Queen, may, if she see fit, appoint ambassadors, ministers, or other diplomatic agents to the Court of Peking; and his Majesty the Emperor of China may, in like manner, if he see fit, appoint ambassadors, ministers, or other diplomatic agents to the Court of St. James'.

ART. III.—His Majesty the Emperor of China hereby agrees, that the ambassador, minister, or other diplomatic agent, so appointed by her Majesty the Queen of Great Britain, may reside, with his family and establishment, permanently at the capital, or may visit it occasionally, at the option of the British Government. He shall not be called upon to perform any ceremony derogatory to him as representing the Sovereign of an independent nation on a footing of equality with that of China. On the other hand, he shall use the same forms of ceremony and respect to his Majesty the Emperor as are employed by the ambassadors, ministers, or diplomatic agents of her Majesty towards the sovereigns of independent and equal European nations. It is further agreed, that her Majesty's Government may acquire at Peking a site for building, or may hire houses for the accommodation of her Majesty's mission, and that the Chinese Government will assist it in so doing. Her Majesty's representative shall be at liberty to choose his own servants and attendants, who shall not be subjected to any kind of molestation whatever. Any person guilty of disrespect or violence to her Majesty's representative, or to any member of his family or establishment, in deed or word, shall be severely punished.

ART. IV.—It is further agreed, that no obstacle or difficulty shall be made to the free movements of her Majesty's representative, and that he, and the persons of his suite, may come and go, and travel at their pleasure. He shall, moreover, have full liberty to send and receive his correspondence, to and from any point on the sea-coast that he may select; and his letters and effects shall be held sacred and inviolable. He may employ, for their transmission, special couriers, who shall meet with the same protection and facilities for travelling as the persons employed in carrying despatches for the Imperial Government; and, generally, he shall enjoy the same privileges as are accorded to officers of the same rank by the usage and consent of Western nations. All expenses attending the diplomatic mission of Great Britain in China shall be borne by the British Government.

ART. V.—His Majesty the Emperor of China agrees to nominate one of the Secretaries of State, or a President of one of the Boards, as the high officer with whom the ambassador, minister, or other diplomatic agent of

her Majesty the Queen shall transact business, either personally or in writing, on a footing of perfect equality.

ART. VI.—Her Majesty the Queen of Great Britain agrees that the privileges hereby secured shall be enjoyed in her dominions by the ambassadors, ministers, or diplomatic agents of the Emperor of China, accredited to the Court of her Majesty.

ART. VII.—Her Majesty the Queen may appoint one or more consuls in the dominions of the Emperor of China; and such consul or consuls shall be at liberty to reside in any of the open ports or cities of China, as her Majesty the Queen may consider most expedient for the interests of British commerce. They shall be treated with due respect by the Chinese authorities, and enjoy the same privileges and immunities as the consular officers of the most favoured nation. Consuls and vice-consuls in charge shall rank with intendants of circuits; vice-consuls, acting vice-consuls, and interpreters, with prefects. They shall have access to the official residences of these officers, and communicate with them, either personally or in writing, on a footing of equality, as the interests of the public service may require.

ART. VIII.—The Christian religion, as professed by Protestants or Roman Catholics, inculcates the practice of virtue, and teaches man to do as he would be done by. Persons teaching or professing it, therefore, shall alike be entitled to the protection of the Chinese authorities, nor shall any such, peaceably pursuing their calling, and not offending against the law, be persecuted or interfered with.

ART. IX.—British subjects are hereby authorized to travel, for their pleasure or for purposes of trade, to all parts of the interior, under passports which will be issued by their consuls, and countersigned by the local authorities. These passports, if demanded, must be produced for examination in the localities passed through. If the passport be not irregular, the bearer will be allowed to proceed, and no opposition shall be offered to his hiring persons or hiring vessels for the carriage of his baggage or merchandize. If he be without a passport, or if he commit any offence against the law, he shall be handed over to the nearest consul for punishment, but he must not be subjected to any ill-usage in excess of necessary restraint. No passport need be applied for by persons going on excursions from the ports open to trade to a distance not exceeding 100 *li*, and for a period not exceeding five days. The provisions of this article do not apply to crews of ships, for the due restraint of whom regulations will be drawn up by the consul and the local authorities. To Nanking, and other cities disturbed by persons in arms against the Government, no pass shall be given, until they shall have been recaptured.

ART. X.—British merchant-ships shall have authority to trade upon the Great River (Yang-tsze). The upper and lower valley of the river being, however, disturbed by outlaws, no port shall be for the present opened to trade, with the exception of Chin-kiang, which shall be opened in a year from the date of the signing of this treaty. So soon as peace shall have been restored, British vessels shall also be admitted to trade at such ports as far as Han-kow, not exceeding three in number, as the British minister, after consultation with the Chinese Secretary of State, may determine shall be ports of entry and discharge.

ART. XI.—In addition to the cities and towns of Canton, Amoy, Fuchow, Ningpo, and Shanghai, opened by the treaty of Nanking, it is agreed that

British subjects may frequent the cities and ports of New-Chwang, Tang-Chow, Tai-Wau (Formosa), Chau-Chow (Swatow), and Kiung-Chow (Hainan). They are permitted to carry on trade with whomsoever they please, and to proceed to and fro at pleasure with their vessels and merchandize. They shall enjoy the same privileges, advantages, and immunities at the said towns and ports, as they enjoy at the ports already opened to trade, including the right of residence, of buying or renting houses, of leasing land therein, and of building churches, hospitals, and cemeteries.

ART. XII.—British subjects, whether at the ports or at other places, desiring to build or open houses, warehouses, churches, hospitals, or burial-grounds, shall make their agreement for the land or buildings they require, at the rates prevailing among the people, equitably, and without exactions on either side.

ART. XIII.—The Chinese Government will place no restrictions whatever upon the employment, by British subjects, of Chinese subjects in any lawful capacity.

ART. XIV.—British subjects may hire whatever boats they please for the transport of goods or passengers, and the sum to be paid for such boats shall be settled between the parties themselves, without the interference of the Chinese Government. The number of these boats shall not be limited, nor shall a monopoly in respect either of the boats, or of the porters or coolies engaged in carrying the goods, be granted to any parties. If any smuggling takes place in them, the offenders will, of course, be punished according to law.

ART. XV.—All questions in regard to rights, whether of property or person, arising between British subjects, shall be subject to the jurisdiction of the British authorities.

ART. XVI.—Chinese subjects who may be guilty of any criminal act towards British subjects shall be arrested and punished by the Chinese authorities, according to the laws of China. British subjects who may commit any crime in China shall be tried and punished by the consul, or other public functionary authorized thereto, according to the laws of Great Britain. Justice shall be equitably and impartially administered on both sides.

ART. XVII.—A British subject having reason to complain of a Chinese, must proceed to the consulate, and state his grievance. The consul will inquire into the merits of the case, and do his utmost to arrange it amicably. In like manner, if a Chinese have reason to complain of a British subject, the consul shall no less listen to his complaint, and endeavour to settle it in a friendly manner. If disputes take place of such a nature that the consul cannot arrange them amicably, then he shall request the assistance of the Chinese authorities, that they may together examine into the merits of the case, and decide it equitably.

ART. XVIII.—The Chinese authorities shall at all times afford the fullest protection to the persons and property of British subjects, whenever these shall have been subjected to insult or violence. In all cases of incendiarism or robbery, the local authorities shall at once take the necessary steps for the recovery of the stolen property, the suppression of disorder, and the arrest of the guilty parties whom they will punish according to law.

ART. XIX.—If any British merchant-vessel, while within Chinese waters, be plundered by robbers or pirates, it shall be the duty of the Chinese authorities to use every endeavour to capture and punish the said robbers

or pirates, and to recover the stolen property, that it may be handed over to the consul for restoration to the owner.

ART. XX.—If any British vessel be at any time wrecked or stranded on the coast of China, or be compelled to take refuge in any port within the dominions of the Emperor of China, the Chinese authorities, on being apprised of the fact, shall immediately adopt measures for its relief and security; the persons on board shall receive friendly treatment, and shall be furnished, if necessary, with the means of conveyance to the nearest consular station.

ART. XXI.—If criminals, subjects of China, shall take refuge in Hong Kong, or on board the British ships there, they shall, upon due requisition by the Chinese authorities, be searched for, and, on proof of their guilt, be delivered up. In like manner, if Chinese offenders take refuge in the houses or on board the vessels of British subjects at the open ports, they shall not be harboured or concealed, but shall be delivered up, on due requisition by the Chinese authorities, addressed to the British consul.

ART. XXII.—Should any Chinese subject fail to discharge debts incurred to a British subject, or should he fraudulently abscond, the Chinese authorities will do their utmost to effect his arrest, and enforce recovery of the debts. The British authorities will likewise do their utmost to bring to justice any British subject fraudulently absconding or failing to discharge debts incurred by him to a Chinese subject.

ART. XXIII.—Should natives of China who may repair to Hong Kong to trade incur debts there, the recovery of such debts must be arranged for by the English courts of justice on the spot; but should the Chinese debtor abscond, and be known to have property, real or personal, within the Chinese territory, it shall be the duty of the Chinese authorities, on application by, and in concert with, the British consul, to do their utmost to see justice done between the parties.

ART. XXIV.—It is agreed that British subjects shall pay, on all merchandize imported or exported by them, the duties prescribed by the tariff; but in no case shall they be called upon to pay other or higher duties than are required of the subjects of any other foreign nation.

ART. XXV.—Import duties shall be considered payable on the landing of the goods, and duties of export on the shipment of the same.

ART. XXVI.—Whereas the tariff fixed by Article X. of the treaty of Nanking, and which was estimated so as to impose on imports and exports a duty at about the rate of five per cent. *ad valorem*, has been found, by reason of the fall in value of various articles of merchandize, therein enumerated, to impose a duty upon these, considerably in excess of the rate originally assumed as above to be a fair rate, it is agreed that the said tariff shall be revised, and that as soon as the treaty shall have been signed, application shall be made to the Emperor of China to depute a high officer of the Board of Revenue to meet, at Shanghai, officers to be deputed on behalf of the British Government, to consider its revision together, so that the tariff, as revised, may come into operation immediately after the ratification of this treaty.

ART. XXVII.—It is agreed that either of the high contracting parties to this treaty may demand a further revision of the tariff, and of the commercial articles of this treaty, at the end of ten years; but if no demand be made on either side within six months after the end of the first ten years, then the tariff shall remain in force for ten years more, reckoned

from the end of the preceding ten years; and so it shall be, at the end of each successive period of ten years.

ART. XXVIII.—Whereas it was agreed in Article X. of the treaty of Nanking, that British imports, having paid the tariff duties, should be conveyed into the interior free of all further charges, except a transit duty, the amount whereof was not to exceed a certain per-centage on tariff value; and whereas no accurate information having been furnished of the amount of such duty, British merchants have constantly complained that charges are suddenly and arbitrarily imposed by the provincial authorities as transit duties upon produce on its way to the foreign market, and on imports on their way into the interior, to the detriment of trade; it is agreed that within four months from the signing of this treaty, at all ports now open to British trade, and within a similar period at all ports that may hereafter be opened, the authority appointed to superintend the collection of duties shall be obliged upon application of the consul, to declare the amount of duties leviable on produce between the place of production and the port of shipment, and upon imports between the consular port in question and the inland markets named by the consul; and that a notification thereof shall be published in English and Chinese for general information. But it shall be at the option of any British subject, desiring to convey produce purchased inland to a port, or to convey imports from a port to an inland market, to clear his goods of all transit duties, by payment of a single charge. The amount of this charge shall be leviable on exports at the first barrier they may have to pass, or, on imports, at the port at which they are landed; and on payment thereof, a certificate shall be issued, which shall exempt the goods from all further inland charges whatsoever. It is further agreed, that the amount of this charge shall be calculated, as nearly as possible, at the rate of two and a half per cent. *ad valorem*, and that it shall be fixed for each article at the conference to be held at Shanghai for the revision of the tariff. It is distinctly understood, that the payment of transit dues, by commutation or otherwise, shall in no way affect the tariff duties on imports or exports which will continue to be levied separately and in full.

ART. XXIX.—British merchant-vessels, of more than 150 tons burden, shall be charged tonnage-dues at the rate of four mace per ton; if of 150 tons and under, they shall be charged at the rate of one mace per ton. Any vessel clearing from any of the open ports of China for any other of the open ports, or for Hong Kong, shall be entitled, on application of the master, to a special certificate from the customs, on exhibition of which she shall be exempted from all further payment of tonnage-dues, in any open port of China, for a period of four months, to be reckoned from the date of her port clearance.

ART. XXX.—The master of any British merchant-vessel may, within forty-eight hours after the arrival of his vessel, but not later, decide to depart without breaking bulk, in which case he will not be subject to pay tonnage-dues. But tonnage-dues shall be held due after the expiration of the said forty-eight hours. No other fees or charges upon entry or departure shall be levied.

ART. XXXI.—No tonnage-dues shall be payable on boats employed by British subjects in the conveyance of passengers, baggage, letters, articles of provision, or other articles not subject to duty, between any of the open ports. All cargo boats, however, conveying merchandize subject to duty

[327]

shall pay tonnage-dues once in six months, at the rate of four mace per register ton.

ART. XXXII.—The consuls and superintendents of customs shall consult together regarding the erection of beacons or lighthouses, and the distribution of buoys and light-ships, as occasion may demand.

ART. XXXIII.—Duties shall be paid to the bankers, authorized by the Chinese Government to receive the same in its behalf, either in sycee or in foreign money, according to the assay made at Canton on the 13th of July, 1843.

ART. XXXIV.—Sets of standard weights and measures, prepared according to the standard issued to the Canton custom-house by the Board of Revenue, shall be delivered by the superintendent of customs to the consul at each port, to secure uniformity and prevent confusion.

ART. XXXV.—Any British merchant-vessel arriving at one of the open ports, shall be at liberty to engage the services of a pilot to take her into port. In like manner, after she has discharged all legal dues and duties, and is ready to take her departure, she shall be allowed to select a pilot, to conduct her out of port.

ART. XXXVI.—Whenever a British merchant-vessel shall arrive off one of the open ports, the superintendent of customs shall depute one or more customs officers to guard the ship. They shall either live in a boat of their own, or stay on board the ship, as may best suit their convenience. Their food and expenses shall be supplied them from the custom-house, and they shall not be entitled to any fees whatever from the master or consignee. Should they violate this regulation, they shall be punished proportionately to the amount exacted.

ART. XXXVII.—Within twenty-four hours after arrival, the ship's papers, bills of lading, &c., shall be lodged in the hands of the consul, who will, within a further period of twenty-four hours, report to the superintendent of customs the name of the ship, her register, tonnage, and the nature of her cargo. If, owing to neglect on the part of the master, the above rule is not complied with, within forty-eight hours after the ship's arrival, he shall be liable to a fine of fifty taels for every day's delay: the total amount of penalty, however, shall not exceed two hundred taels. The master will be responsible for the correctness of the manifest, which shall contain a full and true account of the particulars of the cargo on board. For presenting a false manifest, he will subject himself to a fine of five hundred taels; but he will be allowed to correct, within twenty-four hours after delivery of it to the customs officers, any mistake he may discover in his manifest, without incurring this penalty.

ART. XXXVIII.—After receiving from the consul the report in due form, the superintendent of customs shall grant the vessel a permit to open hatches. If the master shall open hatches and begin to discharge any goods without such permission, he shall be fined five hundred taels, and the goods discharged shall be confiscated wholly.

ART. XXXIX.—Any British merchant who has cargo to land or ship, must apply to the superintendent of customs for a special permit. Cargo landed or shipped without such permit will be liable to confiscation.

ART. XL.—No transshipment from one vessel to another can be made without special permission, under pain of confiscation of the goods so transhipped.

ART. XLI.—When all dues and duties shall have been paid, the superin-

tendent of customs shall give a port-clearance, and the consul shall then return the ship's papers, so that she may depart on her voyage.

ART. XLII.—With respect to articles subject, according to the tariff, to an *ad valorem* duty, if the British merchant cannot agree with the Chinese officer in fixing a value, then each party shall call two or three merchants to look at the goods, and the highest price at which any of these merchants would be willing to purchase them, shall be assumed as the value of the goods.

ART. XLIII.—Duties shall be charged upon the net weight of each article, making a deduction for the tare, weight of congee, &c. To fix the tare on any article, such as tea, if the British merchant cannot agree with the custom-house officer, then each party shall choose so many chests out of every hundred, which being first weighed in gross, shall afterwards be tared, and the average tare upon these chests shall be assumed as the tare upon the whole; and upon this principle shall the tare be fixed upon all other goods in packages. If there should be any other points in dispute which cannot be settled, the British merchant may appeal to his consul, who will communicate the particulars of the case to the superintendent of customs, that it may be equitably arranged. But the appeal must be made within twenty-four hours, or it will not be attended to. While such points are still unsettled, the superintendent of customs shall postpone the insertion of the same in his books.

ART. XLIV.—Upon all damaged goods a fair reduction of duty shall be allowed, proportionate to their deterioration. If any disputes arise, they shall be settled in the manner pointed out in the clause of this treaty having reference to articles which pay duty *ad valorem*.

ART. XLV.—British merchants who have imported merchandize into any of the open ports and paid the duty thereon, if they desire to re-export the same, shall be entitled to make application to the superintendent of customs, who, in order to prevent fraud on the revenue, shall cause examination to be made by suitable officers, to see that the duties paid on such goods, as entered in the custom-house books, correspond with the representation made, and that the goods remain with their original marks unchanged. He shall then make a memorandum on the port-clearance of the goods and of the amount of duties paid, and deliver the same to the merchant; and shall also certify the facts to the officers of customs of the other ports. All which being done, on the arrival in port of the vessel in which the goods are laden, everything being found on examination there to correspond, she shall be permitted to break bulk, and land the said goods, without being subject to the payment of any additional duty thereon. But if, on such examination, the superintendent of customs shall detect any fraud on the revenue in the case, then the goods shall be subject to confiscation by the Chinese Government. British merchants desiring to re-export duty-paid imports to a foreign country, shall be entitled, on complying with the same conditions as in the case of re-exportation to another port in China, to a drawback certificate, which shall be a valid tender to the customs in payment of import or export duties. Foreign grain brought into any port of China in a British ship, if no part thereof has been landed, may be re-exported without hindrance.

ART. XLVI.—The Chinese authorities at each port shall adopt the means they may judge most proper to prevent the revenue suffering from fraud or smuggling.

ART. XLVII.—British merchant-vessels are not entitled to resort to other than the ports of trade declared open by this treaty. They are not unlawfully to enter other ports in China, or to carry on clandestine trade along the coasts thereof. Any vessel violating this provision, shall, with her cargo, be subject to confiscation by the Chinese Government.

ART. XLVIII.—If any British merchant-vessel be concerned in smuggling, the goods, whatever their value or nature, shall be subject to confiscation by the Chinese authorities, and the ship may be prohibited from trading further, and sent away as soon as her accounts shall have been adjusted and paid.

ART. XLIX.—All penalties enforced, or confiscations made, under this treaty, shall belong and be appropriated to the public service of the Government of China.

ART. L.—All official communications, addressed by the diplomatic and consular agents of her Majesty the Queen to the Chinese authorities, shall, henceforth, be written in English. They will for the present be accompanied by a Chinese version, but it is understood that, in the event of there being any difference of meaning between the English and Chinese text, the English Government will hold the sense as expressed in the English text to be the correct sense. This provision is to apply to the treaty now negotiated, the Chinese text of which has been carefully corrected by the English original.

ART. LI.—It is agreed that henceforward the character "I" (barbarian) shall not be applied to the Government or subjects of her Britannic Majesty, in any Chinese official document issued by the Chinese authorities, either in the capital or in the provinces.

ART. LII.—British ships of war coming for no hostile purpose, or being engaged in the pursuit of pirates, shall be at liberty to visit all ports within the dominions of the Emperor of China, and shall receive every facility for the purchase of provisions, procuring water, and, if occasion require, for the making of repairs. The commanders of such ships shall hold intercourse with the Chinese authorities on terms of equality and courtesy.

ART. LIII.—In consideration of the injury sustained by native and foreign commerce from the prevalence of piracy in the seas of China, the high contracting parties agree to concert measures for its suppression.

ART. LIV.—The British Government and its subjects are hereby confirmed in all privileges, immunities, and advantages conferred on them by previous treaties; and it is hereby expressly stipulated that the British Government and its subjects will be allowed free and equal participation in all privileges, immunities, and advantages that may have been, or may be hereafter, granted by his Majesty the Emperor of China to the Government or subjects of any other nation.

ART. LV.—In evidence of her desire for the continuance of a friendly understanding, her Majesty the Queen of Great Britain consents to include in a separate article, which shall be in every respect of equal validity with the articles of this treaty, the conditions affecting indemnity for expenses incurred and losses sustained in the matter of the Canton question.

CHINA.

Convention between Her Majesty and the Emperor of China. Signed in the English and Chinese Languages, at Peking, October 24, 1860.

HER MAJESTY the Queen of Great Britain and Ireland, and his Imperial Majesty the Emperor of China, being alike desirous to bring to an end the misunderstanding at present existing between their respective Governments, and to secure their relations against further interruption, have for this purpose appointed plenipotentiaries, that is to say: Her Majesty the Queen of Great Britain and Ireland, the Earl of Elgin and Kincardine; and his Imperial Majesty the Emperor of China, his Imperial Highness the Prince of Kung; who, having met and communicated to each other their full powers, and finding these to be in proper form, have agreed upon the following Convention, in nine articles:—

ART. I.—A breach of friendly relations having been occasioned by the act of the garrison of Ta-ku, which obstructed her Britannic Majesty's representative when on his way to Peking for the purpose of exchanging the ratifications of the treaty of peace concluded at Tien-tsin in the month of June, 1858, his Imperial Majesty the Emperor of China expresses his deep regret at the misunderstanding so occasioned.

ART. II.—It is further expressly declared, that the arrangement entered into at Shanghai in the month of October, 1858, between her Britannic Majesty's ambassador the Earl of Elgin and Kincardine, and his Imperial Majesty's commissioners Kweyliang and Hwashana, regarding the residence of her Britannic Majesty's representative in China, is hereby cancelled; and that, in accordance with Article III. of the treaty of 1858, her Britannic Majesty's representative will henceforward reside permanently or occasionally at Peking, as her Britannic Majesty shall be pleased to decide.

ART. III.—It is agreed that the separate article of the treaty of 1858 is hereby annulled; and that in lieu of the amount of indemnity therein specified, his Imperial Majesty the Emperor of China shall pay the sum of 8,000,000 taels in the following proportions or instalments, namely:—At Tien-tsin, on or before the 30th day of November, the sum of 500,000 taels; at Canton, and on or before the 1st day of December, 1860, 333,333 taels, less the sum which shall have been advanced by the Canton authorities towards the completion of the British factory site at Shameen; and the remainder at the ports open to foreign trade, in quarterly payments, which shall consist of one-fifth of the gross revenue from customs there collected. The first of the said payments being due on the 31st day of December, 1860, for the quarter terminating on that day.

It is further agreed that these moneys shall be paid into the hands of an officer whom her Britannic Majesty's representative shall specially appoint to receive them, and that the accuracy of the amounts shall, before payment, be duly ascertained by British and Chinese officers appointed to discharge this duty.

In order to prevent future discussion, it is moreover declared, that of the 8,000,000 taels herein guaranteed, 2,000,000 will be appropriated to the indemnification of the British mercantile community at Canton, for losses sustained by them, and the remaining 6,000,000 to the liquidation of war expenses.

ART. IV.—It is agreed that on the day on which this convention is signed, his Imperial Majesty the Emperor of China shall open the port of Tien-tsin to trade, and that it shall be thereafter competent to British subjects to reside and trade there under the same conditions as at any other port of China by treaty open to trade.

ART. V.—As soon as the ratifications of the treaty of 1858 shall have been exchanged, his Imperial Majesty the Emperor of China will, by decree, command the high authorities of every province to proclaim throughout their jurisdictions, that Chinese choosing to take service in the British colonies, or other parts beyond sea, are at perfect liberty to enter into engagements with British subjects for that purpose, and to ship themselves and their families on board any British vessel at any of the open ports of China; also that the high authorities aforesaid shall, in concert with her Britannic Majesty's representative in China, frame such regulations for the protection of Chinese, emigrating, as above, as the circumstances of the different open ports may demand.

ART. VI.—With a view to the maintenance of law and order in and about the harbour of Hong Kong, his Imperial Majesty the Emperor of China agrees to cede to her Majesty the Queen of Great Britain and Ireland, and to her heirs and successors, to have and to hold as a dependency of her Britannic Majesty's colony of Hong Kong, that portion of the township of Cowloon, in the province of Kwang-tung, of which a lease was granted in perpetuity to Harry Smith Parkes, Esq., Companion of the Bath, a member of the Allied Commission at Canton, on behalf of her Britannic Majesty's Government, by Lan Tsung Kwang, Governor-General of the Two Kwang. It is further declared that the lease in question is hereby cancelled; that the claims of any Chinese to property on the said portion of Cowloon shall be duly investigated by a mixed commission of British^a and Chinese officers; and that compensation shall be awarded to any Chinese whose claim shall be by the said commission established, should his removal be deemed necessary by the British Government.

ART. VII.—It is agreed that the provisions of the treaty of 1858, except in so far as these are modified by the present convention, shall without delay come into operation as soon as the ratifications of the treaty aforesaid shall have been exchanged. It is further agreed that no separate ratification of the present convention shall be necessary, but that it shall take effect from the date of its signature, and be equally binding with the treaty above mentioned on the high contracting parties.

ART. VIII.—It is agreed that as soon as the ratifications of the treaty of the year 1858 shall have been exchanged, his Imperial Majesty the Emperor of China shall, by decree, command the high authorities in the capital and in the provinces to print and publish the aforesaid treaty and the present convention, for general information.

ART. IX.—It is agreed that as soon as the same conditions shall have been fulfilled, Chusan shall be evacuated by her Britannic Majesty's troops there stationed, and her Britannic Majesty's force now before Peking shall commence its march towards the city of Tien-tsin, the forts of Taku, the north coast of Shang-tung, and the city of Canton, at each or all of which places it shall be at the option of her Majesty the Queen of Great Britain and Ireland to retain a force until the indemnity of 8,000,000 taels, guaranteed in Art. III., shall have been paid.

[332]

RAILWAYS IN INDIA.

Report on Railways in India for the Year 1860-61.

On the 1st of January, 1860, 634 miles were open for traffic. That length had, at the end of the year, been increased to 842 miles, by the completion of several sections. Of the 842 miles, 100 are constructed with double, and 742 miles with single, lines of rail. This addition to the number of miles completed does not, however, present a correct measure of the progress which has been made generally. Works which at the beginning of the year had not been commenced, or which had been partially executed, have been vigorously prosecuted, and the result will be shown in the course of the present year by a considerable increase to the length of opened line. Still it was expected that more would have been completed, and the delay, especially in the case of the Great Indian Peninsula line, is in great measure due to the prevalence of sickness in certain districts where works were going on. Several Europeans holding high and responsible positions in connection with the undertaking were struck down by disease, and the native workmen dispersed and fled.

The most important section which has been finished during the past year is that on the East Indian Railway, between Cynthea and Rajmahal. By its means, Calcutta is connected with the Ganges, and the navigation of 250 miles of one of the most difficult and dangerous portions of the river may be avoided by those trading between the upper districts of Bengal and the sea coast. While, however, the opportunity of saving time and avoiding danger is thus afforded, the sudden and immediate transfer of the traffic from the river to the railway must not be expected, especially so long as there is a break in the through journey, and the process of unloading and reloading is necessary at the point where the river and railway join. No new lines have been sanctioned during the year, and no fresh company has been formed for the purpose of constructing railways in India. On the other hand, several undertakings, if not abandoned, have been postponed, and the operations of the companies entirely suspended. The extent of line now in course of execution is 2,932½ miles, of which 1,353½ miles will probably be opened during the present year. In 1862 almost all the rest will, it is expected, be finished, including the great trunk line from Calcutta to Delhi.

As the lines approach completion, the amount of materials sent from this country will diminish; but during the past year 234,710 tons were despatched, their value being 2,140,703*l*. This is the largest consignment of material in any year since the commencement of operations.

The returns received from India show that the number of persons employed on the open sections of railway on the 1st October last was 18,789, consisting of 1,137 Europeans and 17,532 natives, but the large number put down in the Engineering Department in the return from the North-West Provinces would indicate that some mistake has occurred in making out the list, by adding to it men employed on the construction of the works.

It will be observed with satisfaction, that the employment of natives is becoming very general, and that some of the positions hitherto occupied by Europeans, such as station-masters, are filled by them. The pay for these varies from 5*l* to 15*l* per month. Guards receive from 7*l* 10*s*. to 15*l* a month, according to their length of service and merits. Engine-drivers,

who are generally sent from England, receive from 16*l.* to 20*l.* per month; those trained in India are paid from 12*l.* to 15*l.* per month. The rate of pay for skilled native labour, such as masons, carpenters, blacksmiths, &c., varies from 10*d.* to 1*s.* a day; ordinary labour from 2½*d.* to 4*d.* per day. Zealous efforts have been made in some quarters to instruct and qualify natives for employment in various capacities, and the results have been very successful. A letter from Mr. Wright, the locomotive superintendent on the Madras Railway, contains interesting particulars on this important subject.

In addition to the undertakings above mentioned, schemes have been brought forward for introducing a line of railway into the Guicowar's territory, in connection with the Bombay and Baroda Railway, and for bringing the French town of Karricall, on the coast of Madras, into railway communication with the Great Southern of India Railway. In regard to the former, the Government of Bombay was authorized to assist the Guicowar in carrying out his design, by giving him the benefit of the experience in railway matters which that Government has gained; interfering only with the construction so as to secure an uniform gauge, and providing for the conveyance of troops and mails when necessary. With regard to the other scheme, the chairman of the Great Southern of India Railway Company was informed that "her Majesty's Government will be happy to facilitate the promotion by the French Government of a line of railway from their port of Karricall to some point on the Great Southern line to be determined on by the local authorities, and would grant to the company formed for the purpose a lease of such portion of the land for the railway and works as would be within the British territory, upon its being shown that the requisite amount of capital was subscribed." In neither case has anything definite been settled.

The importance of constructing roads to serve as feeders to the railways has been fully recognized by the Home Government, and the question is now engaging the attention of the local authorities. The Madras Government has recently reported that its sanction has been given to the construction of 43 roads, of an aggregate length of 1,083 miles, designed to act as feeders to the Madras Railway. The usual rate of speed for passenger trains is from 20 to 23 miles an hour. All the traffic operations during the year seem to have been conducted with regularity and order.

When my report of last year was written, it had been estimated that a sum of 52,430,000*l.* would be required to complete all the lines which had been sanctioned. Fresh estimates have since been made, by which it will be seen that from fifty-five to fifty-six millions sterling will probably be required for this purpose. Of this sum, about seven millions represent the cost of the lines postponed, viz.:—the Allahabad and Jubbulpore line from 2,250,000*l.* to 2,750,000*l.*; the Delhi and Lahore line about 2,500,000*l.*; the line from Sholapore to Bellary from 2,000,000*l.* to 2,250,000*l.* On the 31st December, 1859, 27,079,712*l.* had been raised by the several companies. During the year 1860, a further sum of 5,618,789*l.* has been raised, making a total of 32,845,747*l.* The total expenditure up to the end of that year amounted to 31,171,353*l.* At the end of the *official* year, viz., on the 30th April, 1861, 34,396,445*l.* had been raised by the railway companies, and it is estimated that 34,042,128*l.* had been expended. During the official year 1860-61 the amount raised by the railway companies was 5,841,974*l.*, and the amount expended, 8,290,478*l.*

If the estimate of the Government of India, that more than 6,000,000*l.* will be spent in *India* during the current year is correct, a sum of at least 8,000,000*l.* will have to be raised to meet the whole expenditure of the year ending 30th April, 1862. The railway expenditure now occupies a very prominent place in the financial position of the country, the more so as some of the companies depend upon the Government for advances when necessary. The Government have already in several cases provided funds, and it may be apprehended that, until an improvement takes place in the state of the money market, the system thus commenced will have to be continued. The money spent on Indian railways may therefore be placed under three divisions:—1st, share or stock capital; 2nd, debentures; 3rd, advances by Government. The first consists of capital raised by means of shares, and subsequently converted into stock, the holders being parties to the contracts with the Government, under which a certain rate of interest is guaranteed upon certain conditions, the nature of which conditions was fully explained in the last report. The second consists of sums borrowed for certain periods, the repayment of the same and the interest thereon being guaranteed by the Government of India. These again are divided into two classes, viz., debentures which may be converted into an equivalent amount of guaranteed share capital at the option of the holders, and those which are not convertible, but which must either be paid off or renewed as they expire. They vary also in the mode of transfer, some being registered, and others being transferable from hand to hand. Although in the shape of a loan, the sums raised by means of debentures do not provide for a temporary want, but are absolutely sunk in the undertaking, and are to all intents and purposes so much capital. The last description consists of sums advanced by the Government to those companies which have been unable to raise sufficient funds to meet the expenditure on lines which have been commenced. The companies to whom such advances are made are charged with interest at the rate of five per cent., and the Government will have a direct interest in the undertaking in proportion to the amount of their advances. Of the 34,396,445*l.* which had been raised to the 30th April last, 27,560,675*l.* consists of shares or stock, and 6,835,770*l.* of debentures. The total amount of capital which it is expected will be required for each undertaking is as follows:—East Indian—Main line, 20,750,000*l.*; Jubbulpore line, 2,250,000*l.* Madras—Main line and Bellary, 8,500,000*l.* Great Indian Peninsula, 12,000,000*l.* Scinde, 1,400,000*l.* Punjaub—Moultan to Umritsur, 2,250,000*l.*; Delhi to Lahore, 2,500,000*l.* Indus Flotilla, 300,000*l.* Bombay, Baroda, and Central India, 3,500,000*l.* Eastern Bengal, 1,400,000*l.* Calcutta and South-Eastern, 280,000*l.* Great Southern of India, 550,000*l.* Total, 55,680,000*l.*

Taking the estimate of 55,680,000*l.* as the sum requisite for the completion of the railways which have been sanctioned, but which, it should be observed, is pronounced by some of the companies to be excessive, about 14,000,000*l.* remains, exclusive of the 7,000,000*l.* or 8,000,000*l.* required ultimately for suspended works, to be raised for the lines in course of execution. The expenditure of this sum will be spread over this and the next three or four years; and, looking to the progress made in some lines, and to the expected completion of a considerable addition within the next twelve months, it will probably be distributed as follows:—In 1861-62, total, 8,000,000*l.*; 2,000,000*l.* England, 6,000,000*l.* India. In 1862-63, total, 4,000,000*l.*; 750,000*l.* England, 3,250,000*l.* India. In 1863-64,

[335]

total, 1,500,000*l.*; 300,000*l.* England, 1,200,000*l.* India. In 1864-65, total, 500,000*l.*; 100,000*l.* England, 400,000*l.* India. But before the arrival of the year 1864, it will have to be considered whether the postponed works, as well as the extensions of the Great Southern and the Eastern Bengal Railways should not be commenced. If this question is decided in the affirmative, the expenditure would be raised to, and maintained at, from two and a half to three millions a year for that and the three following years.

The sums paid by the Government of India on account of the guarantee now amount to 5,299,709*l.* This charge against the companies had, however, been reduced on the 30th June last by 880,331*l.*, the amount of the net profits up to that date. The annual amount due from the Government, on account of the guarantee, was, at the commencement of the present year, about 1,450,000*l.* By the 31st December next, this sum will probably be increased by from 350,000*l.* to 400,000*l.* The annual charge will, it is hoped, cease when the railways are in working order, and the large arrears will, it is further hoped, be ultimately repaid out of half the excess profits beyond 5 per cent. The annual earnings of the railways, on 30th June, 1860, amounted to about 318,310*l.* Those for the year ending 30th June next, may probably amount to 400,000*l.*, which will be set off against the sum to be paid by Government for the guarantee.

The following statement shows the number of proprietors of Indian railway stock or shares in this country and in India on the 31st December last, and distinguishes the native from the European proprietors, as well as those who hold shares or stock of the value of 1,000*l.* and upwards:—

Railway Company.	Number of Proprietors holding Shares of the value of 1,000 <i>l.</i> and upwards.	Number of Proprietors holding Shares of less than 1,000 <i>l.</i> value.	Total Number of Proprietors.	Number of Proprietors registered in India.	Number of Native Proprietors registered in India.
East Indian	2,800	3,594	6,394	232	75
Madras	1,033	1,229	2,262	No register is kept at Madras, but there are 10 natives of India holding Stock.	
Great Indian Peninsula ...	1,788	2,595	4,383		
Scinde	347	359	706	248	152
Punjaub	490	381	801	20	5
Indus Flotilla	97	205	302	19	3
Bombay, Baroda, and Central India	430	769	1,199	None.	None.
Eastern Bengal	258	270	508	The number of Proprietors in India is not as yet known.	
Great Southern of India ...	108	100	208		
Calcutta and South-Eastern	67	288	355	38	23
				23	12
				99	56
Total	7,328	9,790	17,118	679	336

Last year the number of shareholders was 15,224, so that there has been an increase of 1,894; 638 among the larger, and 1,356 among the smaller, proprietors. The share capital, in the same period, had increased from 22,920,000*l.* to 25,887,057*l.*

The only impediment now to the development of the railway system in India is the apprehended difficulty in supplying funds. The physical and engineering obstacles which presented themselves, if they have not been entirely overcome, are in a fair way of being surmounted. Rivers of great

width and depth are being spanned by bridges which will stand as monuments of the scientific skill of the present age; mountains will be crossed by means of works which of their kind will be unrivalled; swamps and jungles have been drained and cleared, and hills have been pierced. All this has been done with British capital, but its flow in the same direction, through the appointed channels, has for a time sustained a check. And this is not altogether to be wondered at, when the disturbing influences of the last few years are taken into consideration. For a long period the funds raised by the companies were abundant, and balances of considerable amount usually stood to their credit. There is no reason to suppose that this steady supply would not have continued had it not been for the political convulsions which have taken place. The excessive expenditure caused by the mutiny forced the Government to contract large loans, which naturally interfered with the financial operations of the companies. This may be regarded as a temporary cause which will pass away; but it was not possible to wait for more favourable times without incurring serious loss. While the difficulties have been increasing the works have been prosecuted, and have now arrived at that stage in their progress which demands an outlay during the present year as large as last year, and higher than will be required in any subsequent year. The future progress and early success of these great works depends, then, upon the financial arrangements that may be made to meet the expenditure requisite to bring them into a profitable condition. It has all along been necessary to extend the support of the Government to the companies which have undertaken them. Assistance has been given in the shape of a guarantee of interest upon the capital, and with this help more than thirty-four millions have been raised. Upwards of two more can be raised by calls upon issued shares, and, if the state of the money market improves, further amounts may be obtained by debentures and additional shares. But if the expenditure is at a rate more rapid than that at which capital can be raised by these means, it may be necessary to have recourse to Government aid in the shape of advances. The charge upon the State involved in this arrangement will not be more than it now is, and the risk to the Government will not be greater, as the conditions of the contracts remain unaffected by it. There can be no doubt that the best policy to be pursued, under existing circumstances, is that which has been decided on, viz., to proceed steadily with the works which are in progress and to raise funds as required, if the companies fail to do so, through the direct agency of Government; to postpone, but only temporarily, works which have not been commenced; and to guarantee no further projects until the lines already sanctioned have been completed.

The interests alike of the Government, of the railway companies, and of the public would be sacrificed by the suspension of operations in the present condition of the lines. Not only would a large outlay remain unprofitable, but positive loss would be incurred by the damage to, and even destruction of, unfinished works, if left to the mercy of the elements in a tropical climate. Never, perhaps, was there a time more pregnant than the present with proofs of the necessity for a sure and permanent system of internal communication in India. Whether we look to the lamentable accounts of the famine now desolating the North-West Provinces, or to the anxiety with which passing events in America are being watched by our manufacturers, and to the temporary and necessarily imperfect measures which are being taken by the local Governments to aid the transport of Indian cotton to this

country, or whether, adverting to the large European force now destined to garrison the country, we consider the safety, ease, and economy which would be secured by the conveyance of troops by railway, the early completion of the main lines which have been sanctioned appears to be a matter of paramount importance, and to admit of no delay.

EAST INDIA INDIGO COMMISSION.

Papers relating to Indigo Cultivation in Bengal.

On the 20th April, 1854, Mr. A. Sconce, judge of Nuddea, made a note on the relation between indigo planters and ryots, to the following effect:—

The general impression conveyed to me regarding the indigo system is, that it is sustained throughout by compulsion, and by the advantages gained by arbitrary and unrighteous dealing. It is said that the ryots are driven by force or fear to undertake the cultivation of indigo; that they are not allowed to cultivate other crops till they have sown indigo, first, it may be, on the planter's *nijjote* land, next on the ryots' own lands; that done, the ryots' labour and cattle being limited, it is too late to go on with other crops. It is said that ryots are not at liberty to devote what lands they choose to the cultivation of indigo, but their best land, this field or that, as the planter may point out. It is said that, in contracting engagements for land, planters require large and unusual measure, two and a half beegahs of the common beegah to make one beegah. It is said to be notorious that a ryot gains little, if at all, by the advance of two rupees a beegah made to him by the planter; he has to pay it away to the factory amlah. It is said that in delivering his produce the ryot is compelled to deliver two bundles for one; two bundles are taken from him at the market price of one bundle. This is said to be done by tying the leafy heads of two (or more) bundles together, and making one factory bundle. It is said that the work of the factory is carried on by the inadequately requited services of labourers, boatmen, and hackery drivers; by the extortionate cesses which planters levy from their tenants; by the compulsory loans which mahajuns are obliged to make for the purpose of liquidating ryots' balances. Ryots, it has been said to me, have nothing, and can have nothing: they are working cattle merely, not men reconciled to labour by their gains.

I find it difficult to obtain anything like an exact conception of the forms in which the force or compulsion alleged to be used towards the ryots is exerted; it is said that cattle are not allowed to graze; that they are carried off altogether, perhaps plundered, perhaps drowned; that crops are wantonly destroyed; that houses are harried and burnt. Complain, say they; how often would you have the poor man and the weak man to complain? It is better to bear than to complain.

It will be understood that I do not adopt these statements; they are deplorable; but the utmost I am entitled to say is that it is deplorable, not that they are true, but that they should be believed to be true; and it is to this belief that I think measures of inquiry and redress are due.

Should a commission of inquiry be instituted, these points would specially be attended to:—1. The whole conditions of a ryot's engagement, as a tenant, to cultivate indigo; embracing the nature of his rent in money or in

crop; the rate of his rent; the rate of advances, and extent to which advances are made; the size of the beegah compared with the beegah of rice land; the period of the engagement, and terms and manner of delivering the indigo. 2. The indigo being ripe for delivery, does the planter account for it at the full bazaar price? Under what condition is indigo seed taken and accounted for? 3. Ordinarily, what provision is made for the termination of a ryot's engagements? is any period specified? Has the provision of section V., regulation V. of 1830, been taken advantage of? In practice, by any, is an engagement considered interminable? 4. Season failing, on whom does the risk rest? Is the ryot accountable for advances only; or for the entire money rent of the year; or for the value of an estimated but ungrown crop of indigo; or for both rent and advances? 5. What proportion does the advance bear to the whole rent; or if the rent be estimated in kind, what is the proportion of the advance to the value of the crop? In delivering the produce, at what rate is the portion not advanced upon credited to the ryot? 6. Practically, in this factory and in that, to what extent are balances scored up against ryots; ordinarily what adjustments are effected; how long is adjustment deferred? 7. Practically, what is the comparative position of ryots who grow indigo, and of ryots who grow other crops but not indigo? Is indigo more liable to fail than other crops; if so, do the superior returns per beegah from indigo remunerate the ryot for his greater losses? Ordinarily, are indigo ryots above the world? 8. At what rate, under what conditions, is the labour of various descriptions required by the planter remunerated; for tilling the private lands of the factory; for gathering the crops; for manufacturing the indigo, and for transporting it? Is a lost crop worked out in labour? If worked out, how is account taken? 9. In farms and talooks attached to indigo factories, what is the condition of the sub-tenants as such?

These queries may seem mainly to refer to the conditions of the native ryot; but they necessarily embrace the co-relative rights and interests of the planter. A factory worked for twenty years or for half a century, must necessarily be invested with some sort of rights; to ascertain, to define, and to preserve these rights could not but be advantageous, and is certainly due to the indigo planter; and possibly even a planter should be expected to admit, that in the system into which he was necessarily adopted, investigation may disclose involuntary defects which he himself would be most unwilling to perpetuate.

Upon this note a minute was made by the Governor-General of Bengal, that seeing that Mr. Sconce had little opportunity as yet to test the truth of such assertions, it will be better to defer any further notice of the letter for the present.

On the 26th October, 1854, Mr. F. Beaufort, joint magistrate of Poona, wrote a letter proposing to enact a law making a breach of contract for the cultivation of indigo punishable as a misdemeanor. On the 14th May, 1859, Mr. S. B. Lane proposed a law for ensuring the execution of engagements for the cultivation and delivery of indigo plant.

On the 31st December, 1859, Mr. J. Cockburn, dacoity deputy magistrate in charge of the Jessore office, and formerly an indigo planter, made the following report upon the present system of indigo cultivation:—

My experience has been derived from the system pursued in the district of Baraset, and the Kishnaghur factories bordering on it. I believe there is less of what is called "zooloom" there than anywhere else, for the ryots

[339]

are proverbially more independent about those parts than in any other part of Bengal.

There are two entirely different systems pursued in "illaka" and "bay illaka" villages, in making advances for the cultivation of indigo plant. In the latter generally it is a matter of choice; in the former it is compulsory. In a "bay illaka" village, or a few villages of the kind entirely surrounded by the planter's "illaka" ones, or if the zemindar were friendly to the planter, of course choice would be out of the question, but a village or villages quite distinct and at some distance from the planter's "illaka," and the zemindar of which favoured his ryots, it would be impossible for the planter to force advances on them, or even if they held former advances (which is often the case), to get them to settle their accounts. The most miserable and destitute of these men are those who come into the factories when in distress and beg for advances, fully resolved, when the time for sowing came, to evade any contract they may make (and in this they would to a certainty be backed up by the zemindar). The planter is fully aware of this, but his great object being to show an increasing cultivation on the books of the factory, thereby increasing its value, he makes the advance, trusting to his luck at some future time to prove in the courts that his advance was taken voluntarily, and the contract entered into unfulfilled; and if an order can be procured from the magistrate of the district to compel the ryot to sow, or a darogah is sent out to prevent a breach of the peace while the planter is sowing his own lands (which is much the same thing), why, the lands of the ryots who took advances are not only sown, but adjoining lands belonging to other "bay illaka" ryots, who have never had advances, are at the same time finished off, the darogah being present the whole time and ready to report that no "zooloom" was committed in his presence! These ryots, whose lands have thus been forcibly sown, seeing they have no help for it, come in afterwards and take the usual advance of two rupees per beegah, thinking it just as well to get something for their lands at once, for they know full well that if they waited till the time of cutting and manufacturing it is very little plant they would be credited with. This is the way cultivation originates generally in "bay illaka" villages.

There is another way also, which is this, and is common about the large concerns in Kishnagur and Jessore. If a few "bay illaka" ryots, with small and unprofitable jummas can be persuaded to sell them to the planter, he will pay them ten times the value of the jumma, as his object is only to get a footing at first in the village. As soon as he is in possession, he will sow the lands (which are intermixed with those of the other ryots) with indigo. This plant will be most carefully watched by his servants, four times as many servants being often allowed for the protection of these lands than would be allowed for the same amount of land in any other part of the concern, the object being to seize all cattle that may be found trespassing on or near the lands, and bring them into the factory; this will necessarily bring in the owners of the cattle, who are willing enough to pay any fine the planter may impose for damage done his plant, but this is not what he (planter) wants. The cattle are not released till the ryots, knowing full well what is required, at last agree to sow a few beegahs of indigo, but without taking advances; this is agreed to, and the cattle released (or perhaps they may be confined till the lands are sown). This being done, they are for the future factory ryots, for at the end of the year, whatever

the produce of the lands may be, still the ryots will find that they owe the factory something upon which an account is at once opened, and they and their successors booked for ever. It does not require a particularly sharp mohurir to manufacture such an account. In an "illaka" village it is quite a different thing; the method there adopted is summary and refreshing.

Immediately a planter gets the izara of a village, his principal object is to ascertain how many ploughs it contains (two beegahs to a plough being the lowest allowance). Of course, if he sent his servants from house to house to ascertain how many ploughs each ryot possessed, his returns would be decidedly erroneous and much below the correct number, for the ploughs would be concealed at the bottoms of tanks, or sent away to some adjacent "bay illaka" village, or disposed of in some other way till the inquiry ceased; then at the time of ploughing and sowing, when they would be reproduced, a few annas judiciously applied would blind the factory servants more effectually. The planter, knowing this, adopts a certain and satisfactory means of obtaining the information he requires by at once seizing and bringing into the factory the village blacksmith. He of course has had the making and repairing of every ploughshare in the village, is paid annually a certain sum by each ryot (in money or grain) for every plough in use throughout the year, and can tell exactly how many each man has. Another person sent in for at the same time is the village barber, but this is merely to bind him down to report the marriages which occur in the village, as on the marriage of a girl the izzadar gets a nuzzur, called "bâtee salamee," of three rupees, and on that of a boy one rupee; however, this has nothing to do with the cultivation of indigo plant, and is exacted by all zemindars.

The information relative to the ploughs being obtained, the ryots are sent in for an advance of two rupees per beegah, at the rate of at least two beegahs (and sometimes six beegahs) per plough is made them; their signature (if they can write, if not they simply touch the pen) is taken to a blank stamp paper, the value of which (two or four annas, as the case may be) is added to the amount advanced (I mean to their account). The ameens and kalashees then go to the fields, and put the factory mark on the best lands (unless bribed), which may have been reserved and manured for months for the cultivation of a remunerative crop, and certainly not indigo, which cannot pay, as I shall show.

The ryot gets a nominal advance of two rupees per beegah. I say nominal, because, after he has made the usual present to the amlah, &c., there is very little of the two rupees left; but say he gets his two rupees, at the end of a good season his account per beegah would stand so:—

										Rs. a.
A beegah of the very best plant, twenty bundles, at five bundles for the rupee										4 0
Deduct expenses incurred by ryot in cultivating that same beegah—										Rs. a.
Stamp paper	0 2
1. Seed	0 10
2. Five ploughs	0 10
3. Sowing charges	0 3
Weeding ditto	0 6
4. Cutting ditto	0 4
5. Rent of land	1 0
										<hr/> 3 3
6. Balance in favour of ryot	0 13

1. Whatever the price of seed may be, the ryot is always charged at the rate of 10 annas per beegah.

SERIES F.

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[341]

2. Lands that have grown a previous crop, and are consequently partially broken up, require to be ploughed at least five times before being sown. Ploughs are generally hired at the rate of eight for the rupee.

3. This is the cost of one plough required at the time of sowing, previous to the seed being thrown into the ground, as also the cost of a bashee or bamboo ladder, which is drawn over the land by bullocks after it has been sown, and the cost of the hire of which is one anna.

4. It requires three labourers to cut a beegah of good plant in one day; this (if the ryot is unwilling to do it himself) is accomplished by the factory coolies, who are paid at the rate of 2.8 a month each.

5. This is supposing the rent of the land to be 1.8 per annum. The first six months of the Bengalee year (that is, from Bysack to Assin) are supposed to yield the most profitable crop to the ryot (this is the season for indigo), and the zemindar invariably receives two-thirds of the annual rent for that period. If a ryot rented a beegah of land, the rent of which was 1.8 per annum for only the latter six months of the year, he would pay the zemindar only eight annas, the crops raised in those six months being considered far less valuable than those capable of being raised in the previous six months.

6. It must not, however, be supposed for a moment that the ryot receives these thirteen annas! Having been paid four rupees for his plant, the amlah are entitled to two annas on each rupee, which reduces his profits to five annas, and from this he has still to fee the ameen, kalashee, &c.

The amount of the original advance is never deducted from the value of the plant, if by so doing it releases the ryot from his liability to the factory, but the value of plant is paid him in full, and the original advance still stands against him on the factory books. Every planter, on the above account being shown him, would select some different item to object to. One would say I never charge a pice for weeding, because I never have it done. I grant some lands, especially about Kishnaghur, do not require weeding, the land is so favourable to the growth of indigo that, in spite of grass, &c., it grows luxuriantly; but if they deduct the amount stated by me (six annas), they should be asked to state what the ryot is charged for the carriage of indigo plants to the vats. This is paid by some factories, but in many the ryot has to pay for the conveyance of his plant. Again, on those lands where weeding is not necessary, the ryot loses quite as much or more than would have been debited him for weeding expenses, from the loss sustained in rent; for lands on which weeds and grass are not found must have undergone great cultivation, are superior lands, and rented accordingly.

I may here add, that in factories not situated on rivers or lakes, and to the vats of which plant cannot be conveyed but by carts and bullocks, the ryots are even greater sufferers than where water-carriage is available, for this reason, that during the manufacturing season mofussil roads (where there are such things) are in a fearful condition, and the damage done their carts and bullocks is very considerable. They are paid at the rate of five rupees per 100 bundles; and when one comes to think that a cart cannot possibly bring in more than four bundles at a time, which, by factory measurement, come to two or two and a half bundles, and that a bullock never brings in more than three-fourths of a bundle at a time, and that perhaps the plant is brought in from lands two or three miles distant from the vats, and from which more than two loads cannot possibly be brought in in a day, profit is a thing not even to be hinted at. Another planter will say that a beegah of good plant will yield from twenty-five to thirty bundles; but they would find it difficult to show by their books that a ryot was ever credited with that amount of bundles to the beegah. During the whole period of my experience I never saw a beegah yield above twenty bundles, and that very seldom. An average of ten bundles to the beegah is thought a first-rate season; the general average in most good concerns is eight bundles.

When plant is sufficiently high to calculate the probable amount of bundles each beegah will cut, an average statement, called a coot, is made, in which the lands are divided into first, second, third, and fourth quality. The coot of a thousand (1,000) beegahs of good plant would stand so:—

	Beegaha.
First quality lands, which are expected to yield twenty bundles per beegah ...	250
Second quality lands, which are expected to yield twelve bundles per beegah ...	300
Third quality lands, which are expected to yield seven bundles per beegah ...	250
Fourth quality lands, which are expected to yield three bundles per beegah ...	50
Total	850

The other 150 beegahs would have nothing fit to calculate, and would be entered as looksan, or loss.

I should mention, however, that the books of my own late factories would show a ryot who held an advance of ten beegahs credited with 400 bundles in one season! But then that ryot was also the gomashta of the factory, and cut every other ryot a few bundles, which he added to his own account. The gomashtas and their relatives (if ryots) make of course a profit. No ryot, I am certain (by honest means), yet made a profit by cultivating indigo under the present system. Some planter may, to confound me and confute the above statement, request Government to depute one of their servants to the concern nearest Calcutta, viz., Baraset. Here it is true that in nearly every village he will show a *pucka* upper-roomed house, surrounded with "golas," and every other sign of affluence, belonging to the headman of the village, and that same headman will allow that he made all his wealth by the cultivation of indigo; but then the question is, how? His word must be taken for it; he has no books or accounts to support his statement beyond those of the factory, which are so much waste paper, so far as the actual truth is concerned. Call on any mohurir of any factory to swear to the truth of any such account written by him, and he is certain to raise an objection.

The way these headmen have made their money is this: they hold an extensive jumma in the village, which they let out in small portions to the poorer ryots, who consequently become their "jotedars." At the time the advances are being made at the factory, this headman goes in and says, "I will get you sown 100 beegahs in my village;" such and such a ryot will sow so much, another so much, and so on. The advances are written off in the names of those ryots, and the headman receives the money! When he gets back to his village he sends in for his "jotedars," informs them that each man is to sow a certain quantity of indigo for him, and perhaps, if in a particularly generous mood, he lets one off an old debt of a few seers of paddy (for he is their mahajun also), or gives another eight annas, and so on. The lands are sown, and the plant when cut and taken into the factory is accompanied by the headman, who dictates to the "amdanee nobeesh" (or mohurir, who writes the plant account) what number of bundles he is to credit each man with, and what number himself (headman). This is the only way in which the cultivation of indigo pays the ryot.

The most convincing proof that indigo honestly cultivated is an unprofitable crop, and that the expenditure is by no means covered by the returns, is evident from the fact that most concerns have altogether discontinued or considerably reduced their neezabad sowings. I mean the neezabad that requires actual cultivation, not churs! Where it is still carried on, the

cost per beegah (exclusive of ground rent and price of seed) is never under 3rs. 4a. I have put weeding down at six annas per beegah, but I don't mean to say that is what it really costs. It depends on the description of land, and may cost labour equivalent to two rupees per beegah; but six annas is the average of what a ryot generally gets to procure extra hands, and get his lands cleared rapidly; his own labour is no case considered.

The books of some factories may show a profitable net account, in fact they generally do, but they are never to be depended upon, the object of the amlah being to show that this cultivation pays, for this reason that, in consequence, a deal of money passes through their hands, the dishonest expenditure of which cannot easily be perceived; they consequently screw the ryots, and add a few of their bundles to the net account, showing thereby each beegah to have cut some extraordinary number of bundles. Besides, neez bundles are measured fairly, that is, the measuring chain is put over the middle of the plant, whereas ryotty plant is invariably measured with the stocks protruding on each side of the bundle, the soft or leaf part of the plant being in the centre, over which the chain being passed with the whole strength of one of the strongest of the factory servants, the leaves and soft branches are compressed, and what with fair measurement would be two bundles, or a bundle and a-half, or perhaps more, is put down at one bundle!

I believe, however, I have far exceeded the limits it was intended that I should have confined myself to. I beg to apologise for having done so, but cannot conclude without saying this, that the ryots of a European indigo planter are far better situated than those of a native zemindar who works his own factories. These latter never receive a pice of advances, are never paid either the value of their plant or the amount expended in conveying it to the factory. The only expense to the zemindar is the price of seed (and a few of them keep a manager, whom of course they must pay); beyond this, and the cost of packing and conveying to Calcutta, I do not believe they expend a single pice! This I have witnessed with my own eyes, for I was surrounded by native factories, and saw for years the system they were carried on under.

Again, most European planters listen to the complaints of their ryots: and if they don't afford them redress, still the Bengal ryot is generally quite satisfied if he can only get at his "moneeb," and relate his grievances in his loudest voice. He can then go back to his village and brag about the friendly way he was treated, and this no doubt keeps the lower factory servants somewhat in check. But it is next to impossible for the ryot of a native zemindar to get to him. In the first place, he generally resides miles away, or in quite a different district from his factories, and an ordinary ryot cannot afford the time the journey there and back would occupy; besides, no ryot would attempt to face his zemindar without a rupee in his hand as a nuzzur. If he was fool enough to present himself without this necessary article, the result would undoubtedly be a shoe-beating and a summary ejection; in fact, it would be next to impossible for him to get to his zemindar without previously feeing the amlah, and showing them that he had the necessary nuzzur about him. And most ryots cannot afford this expensive style of visiting.

Whatever acts may be passed for the protection of the Bengal ryot will only affect the most blameless of planters, and those in whose concerns there is the least "zooloom." I allude to those planters who have no zemindary,

&c., and who are consequently obliged to be more just and conceding in their dealings with their ryots. Those, on the contrary, who have zemindary, &c., will laugh at any laws that may aim at a reform in the present system; not that they would openly resist them, but that the law could never be brought to bear upon them, for this simple reason, that no ryot of theirs would dare to put himself under its protection, while his jumma, and in fact all he possessed in this world, were in the hands of the planter.

The following is a petition of the Indigo Planters' Association in Bengal to the Honourable the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal:—

SHOWETH,—That your petitioners are largely engaged in a cultivation which they are told, on the highest authority, it is the object of the Supreme Government to foster and encourage. Mr. Wilson, who, in the opening of his financial statement of the 18th ultimo, stated that he had in his proposals “the fullest, the amplest concurrence of the noble Earl, the Governor-General, and of his other colleagues in Council,” also distinctly objected to increase the export duty on indigo, because, among other reasons, “it is one of the few cultivations in India which attract British capital and skill to direct native labour.” Mr. Wilson goes on to say, “that it is the kind of industry which, above all others, the Government would wish to encourage, and on that account alone they would feel precluded from placing any impediment in the way of its extension. It would be more in consonance with our views to remove what little duty there now is, as soon as circumstances will permit. The value of the influence of European gentlemen settled in our country districts cannot, in our opinion, be over estimated, and it will be the steadfast policy of the Government to encourage it in every way we can.”

Your petitioners learn that you yourself, sir, have expressed sentiments similar to those of the Supreme Government on this subject. In a letter, of which we are sorry to say very bad use has been made, you say, “it would be greatly to be lamented if anything should check indigo cultivation, so long as it is a wholesome commercial enterprise.”

But at the moment such favourable expressions towards us are being uttered by the Supreme Government and that of Bengal, we find the manager of the Sindoorie concern writing to us, under date of the 21st February, “the ryots are fully under the impression that Government wish to suppress the cultivation of indigo, and will support them against the planter, and they certainly have every reason for saying so, for they are often told so by the police.” He also states, that “it is impossible to bring any cases against the ryots in the Mofussil courts, as we cannot get witnesses to prove them; even our servants dare not go into court to give evidence.” And on the 29th he writes, “the ryots are at present in a great state of excitement; in fact they are mad, and ready for any mischief. They daily try to burn our factory and seed golahs. Most of our servants have left us from fear, as the ryots have threatened to murder them and burn their houses; and I fear the few that are still with us will soon leave, for the ryots prevent them getting food from the neighbouring bazaars. If some most stringent steps are not taken by the Government at once, none of us will be able to remain in the Mofussil, and then there will be a general looting of the factories, rather a serious state of affairs when you consider what is at stake. Even now it is not safe to ride from factory to factory. The whole country is up; and if it goes on much longer in this way there is no saying what may happen. The police are all against us.”

The manager of the Bengal Indigo Company writes, that his assistants are attacked in the open field, and go to their business in fear of their lives. He says, “I never had a difficulty with my ryots except at the instigation of Government officers. I have induced young men of the highest respectability to join the Bengal Indigo Company's employ as assistants; but how can I expect them to remain or carry on business if they are to be maltreated when riding quietly over their cultivation?” He states that the disturbances in his concern are owing to the “current belief that the Government is determined on putting a stop to all indigo planting.”

The manager of the Neeschindeepore concern writes, on the 15th of February, “For the past four months every indigo property in this district has been, and still is, in the most serious danger; and only great prudence and activity will prevent mischief. An indiscreet order on the part of the magistrate would set the district in a blaze.” And again, on the 29th of February, “Some villages of Katchekatta have begun to behave badly, all caused by the extraordinary outbreak at Lokenathpore, and which is daily getting worse.”

The manager of the Carragoda Factory writes, on the 1st March, “I am sorry to say that the ryots of the Soobdy Factory have been told by the ryots of Kadjoorah Factory of the Golder division, and by those belonging to Ailhaas Factory of the Sindoorie division, to join with them to present a petition against us. My ryots said that they have nothing to complain of, whereupon they were told that they would not be allowed to remain in their villages. I am doing my best to keep them quiet; but the whole district is in revolution, and the mutinous ryots say they will not sow indigo, having the Lord Saheb on their side, who has told them they need not sow indigo if they do not like to do so.”

But your petitioners would bring to your notice that these are not mere reports unsupported by facts. Mr. Campbell, assistant in the Mulnath concern, was attacked and beaten, and left for dead on the field. Mr. Hyde, assistant in the same concern, was pelted with clods, and only saved himself by the speed of his horse.

The factory houses at Kadjoorah, in the Lokenathpore concern, were plundered and burnt down.

Toltollah Factory, in Lokenathpore, was threatened.

The out-houses of Chandpore, in the Goldar concern, were burned down.

Your petitioners would submit that these outrages are not the effect of any oppression on the part of the planters, for the managers of concerns throughout Bengal have of late years made large concessions to the ryots with regard to payments, being necessitated to do so by the great rise in wages, and increase in the price of articles of food, which has taken place during the last five or six years.

Your petitioners would, moreover, state that neither is it a consequence of the unprofitableness of indigo growing, as has been often stated, and they court the fullest inquiry into this point.

Your petitioners conceive that the cause of the unusual outbreak in many of the quietest concerns in Lower Bengal is the diligent propagation, by a late magistrate of Baraset, among his subordinates and others, of the notion that the Government of Bengal intended, by its letter, No. 4,516, of 21st July, 1859, to the address of the Commissioner of Nuddea district, to aid the ryots, by the police, in evading their contracts to sow indigo.

Your petitioners have received copy of a perwannah, issued to the darogah of thannah Kolarooh, of which the following is a translation :—

“ To the Darogah of Thannah Kolarooh.

“ Be it known,—A letter of the magistrate of Baraset, dated 17th August, 1859, has arrived, enclosing extract of a letter, No. 4,516, from the Secretary to the Government of Bengal, dated 21st July, 1859, and addressed to the Nuddea Commissioner, which, in referring to certain indigo matters, states that the ryots are to keep possession of their own lands, sowing thereon such crops as they may desire; that the police should take care that neither indigo planters, nor other persons, should interfere with the ryots; that indigo planters shall not be able, under pretence of the ryots having agreed to sow indigo, to cause indigo to be sown by the use of violence on the lands of those ryots; and that if the ryots have indeed agreed to do so, the indigo planters are at liberty to sue them for the same in the Civil Court, the Fouzdaree Court having no concern at all in that matter; for the ryot can bring forward numerous objections to their cultivating indigo, and in respect of their denial of the above agreement. Therefore this general perwannah is addressed to you, that you may act in future as stated above.”

Your petitioners would submit that such an interference as the above, between the capitalist and labourer, is unwarranted by the practice of any civilized country. Your petitioners would also remark, that were such an order as the above issued by any magistrate in the manufacturing or mining districts in England, strikes would inevitably occur among the labourers, as much more dangerous in character than those in Bengal, as the Englishman is more dangerous and energetic than the Bengallee.

Your petitioners would observe, that in the case of opium cultivation, where Government holds a similar position to that of the indigo planter towards the ryot, a special law for the fulfilment of contracts for the cultivation of opium was required, and has long been enacted. A special law, Act XIII. of 1859, exists for the punishment of breaches of contract by artificers, workmen, and labourers in the towns of Calcutta, Madras, and Bombay. A law to provide for the summary enforcement of contracts between workmen on railways and other public works and their employers has just passed the Legislature. If Government, and railway contractors, armed with some of the powers of Government, and receiving assistance from Government officers, and tradesmen in the Presidency towns, who have the advantage of the Supreme and Small Cause Courts, require special laws for compelling the fulfilment of contracts, surely the unprotected Englishman settled in the interior does so much more, and surely this will not be denied to “that kind of industry which above all others the Government would wish to encourage.”

Your petitioners would therefore pray for the issue, on the part of the Government of Bengal, of some notification which shall disabuse the minds of the ryots of the idea that it is the intention of Government to interfere in any way with the cultivation of indigo, and that his Honour the Lieutenant-Governor be pleased to move the honourable member of the Legislative Council for Bengal to introduce a bill for the summary trial and punishment of breaches of contract in the Mofussil. And your petitioners shall ever pray, &c. &c.

W. WISE, *Chairman.*

On the 31st March, 1860, a bill was passed a third time to enforce the fulfilment of indigo contracts, and to provide for the appointment of a commission of inquiry, of which the following are the principal clauses :—

Whereas it is expedient to issue a commission of inquiry into the practice of indigo planting in Bengal, and the relations between the indigo planter and the ryots and holders of land in Bengal, and to make temporary provision for enforcing by summary process the execution of agreements entered into for the cultivation of indigo plant; and better to provide for the punishment of certain unlawful acts connected with such cultivation; it is enacted as follows:

I. If any person who has received a cash advance upon his agreement to cultivate indigo plant during the season now current, shall wilfully delay or omit, from and after the 4th day of April, 1860, to cultivate according to the conditions of such agreement the whole quantity of land which he has agreed to cultivate, or otherwise to fulfil his engagement, it shall be competent to the magistrate to entertain a complaint made to the above effect on oath by the planter who has made the advance, or by any person on his behalf, and to summon the person complained of to appear before him, in order to the investigation of the complaint preferred. If the magistrate has reason to believe that the person complained of will not appear in obedience to the summons, he may issue a warrant for the arrest of such person.

II. On hearing the answer of the person complained of, and on taking such evidence as both parties may adduce, if the complaint be established to the satisfaction of the magistrate, the magistrate shall assess a certain sum as damages sustained by reason of the breach of the contract. If it shall appear to the magistrate that the person who has agreed to cultivate the indigo plant is still able to perform his contract, the magistrate shall order him specifically to perform the same, and shall also in such case award a certain sum to be paid as damages, as an alternative. In cases in which the land to be cultivated with the indigo plant is defined by the agreement, the magistrate may order the attachment, as a security for the amount of the damages assessed or to be assessed for the breach of the agreement, of any other crop of the defaulter that may at any time during the present season be growing on such land. If after an order for specific performance of agreement, the defendant fail to perform the agreement, or to pay the amount of damages ordered to be paid as an alternative, or if, after an order for payment of damages, the same be not immediately paid, the magistrate may order the defendant to be imprisoned in the civil gaol, for a term not exceeding three months, and may, on the motion of the complainant, furthermore proceed to levy the damages assessed from the property of the defendant, in the mode provided for enforcing decrees of court under Act VIII. of 1859 (for simplifying the Procedure of the Courts of Civil Judicature not established by Royal Charter). Provided that if the amount of the said damages is paid or levied within the aforesaid term of three months, the defendant shall be released from gaol on that amount being paid or levied.

III. In case it shall appear to the satisfaction of the magistrate that the agreement has been obtained by means of fraud, force, or unlawful intimidation, the complaint shall be dismissed.

IV. If any complaint preferred under this act be dismissed for want of proof or appearance of the complainant, or for any other cause, the magistrate may order the complainant to pay such amount for costs and compensation as he may think reasonable. In default of payment of any such amount, the same may be levied by distress and sale of the property of the person ordered to pay the same.

V. If any person, from and after the 4th day of April, 1860, shall by violence, threats, or otherwise intimidate, or attempt to intimidate, any other person who shall have entered into any such agreement as aforesaid, with the intention of inducing such person to break the conditions thereof, he shall, on conviction before the magistrate, be liable to a sentence of imprisonment, with or without labour, for a period not exceeding six months, or to a fine not exceeding 200 rupees, or to both, such fine being commutable, if not paid, to a further period of imprisonment not exceeding six months.

VI. If any person shall maliciously destroy or damage, or if any person shall maliciously command, compel, or persuade any other person to destroy or damage any growing crop of indigo, he shall, on conviction before a magistrate, be liable to be sentenced to imprisonment, with or without labour, for a period not exceeding six months, or to a fine not exceeding 200 rupees, or to both, such fine being commutable, if not paid, to a further period of imprisonment, not exceeding six months.

Subsequently to this a good deal of excitement took place in the indigo districts, upon which legal proceedings took place.

EAST INDIES.

Copies or Extracts of Correspondence relating to Honours or Rewards bestowed upon the Native Princes of India. (Lord Lyveden.) 2nd March, 1860. (77.)

On the 28th July, 1858, the Directors of the East India Company wrote to the Governor-General of India, asking a list of those princes, chiefs, and

[347]

others who have distinguished themselves by acts of fidelity and friendship to the British Government, with a view to reward them, whether by territorial grants, or by pensions, or by honorary distinctions. And in answer to this, Lord Canning sent a description of the services rendered by the chiefs of Jummoo, Puttala, Nabha, Kupoorthulla, by Nawab Ahmud Alee Khan of Kurnal, and by Meer Redayut Alee Khan, and the rissaldar of the 4th Irregular Cavalry, and the rewards by which their loyalty and fidelity had been recognized. These rewards consisted of grants of territory of more or less value; and of additional titles of honour. The Raja of Jheend received the Dadree territory, thirteen villages in the Kooleram pergunnah, the house in Delhi formerly belonging to the rebel Shahzada Aboo Bukr, a salute of fifteen guns to be given to him, an increase of presents on the occasion of a durbar to fifteen trays, his state visits to the Governor-General to be returned by the Secretary, and his honorary titles to be increased.

The Maharaja of Puttala and the Raja of Nabha and Jheend sent in papers of requests as follows:—

I. By the treaty dated 22nd September, 1847, clause 6, it is directed that capital sentences in our dominions shall issue only with the consent of the commissioner. But in order to enforce our legitimate authority, and deter evildoers, it is our prayer that full and absolute power of life and death may be conceded to us in future, and this clause of the treaty cancelled.

II. In the event of the death of any one of us leaving an infant heir, it is requested that a council of regency, consisting of three of the old and trusty and most capable ministers of the state, may be selected by the British agent, acting with the advice of the other two surviving chiefs, and that no stranger be introduced into the council of regency, except with the consent of these two chiefs, and in the event of misconduct on the part of any one of the council a successor to the regency be appointed by the same means. In no case should relatives of the infant heir be admitted to the regency.

III. Trusting to the grace and liberality of the British Government, we request that in default of a male survivor in the direct line the reigning chief may be at liberty, during his lifetime, to select an heir from the descendants of the common ancestor of all the houses (*viz.*, Baba Phool), and to adopt him as a son, to succeed, in himself, and in his direct lineal heirs, to all the honours, possessions, and privileges of the principality.

IV. In case of sudden death without male issue, and without making a formal adoption in the manner above stated, we request that an heir may be selected according to his ancestral claims by the other two surviving states from among the descendants of Phool.

V. Up to the present time the British Government have considerably abstained from any interference with the domestic concerns of native princes. We hope that the same policy may continue, and that women, as a general rule, may never be allowed to interfere in affairs of state, either on the pretext of the chief being young, or upon any other plea; and that no complaints of any sort preferred by the women of our family be received by the British Government.

VI. Government has always bound itself by treaty and by practice never to interfere on behalf of relatives, connections, or other dependants of the family; and we hope that the same principle of forbearance may be observed in future.

VII. The ancestors of the three houses have always proved themselves loyal and attached to British supremacy, and our services have always been appreciated by increased honours and gifts of territory, and we have been guaranteed in the possession of them, and of our own territory, by repeated edicts, proclamations, and treaties emanating from the British Government. In future we request that each of us may be favoured with a sunnud guaranteeing to us in perpetuity our hereditary possessions, and also the provinces graciously bestowed upon us by Government, under the hand and seal of the sovereign of Great Britain.

VIII. We hope that in future, according to the usage of the past, the British Government may not interfere with the action of our civil courts; and that no claims against our subjects may be heard in the civil courts situated in British territory.

The grants made to these two chiefs, the Maharaja of Puttala and the Raja of Jheend and Nabha, consisted, first, of the grant of a sunnud from the Governor-General confirming to him and to his heirs for ever his possessions, and all the privileges attached to them; and secondly, the recognition of his right, in failure of direct heirs, to adopt a successor from the Phoolkea family.

PUBLIC INCOME AND EXPENDITURE.

AN ACCOUNT of the Gross PUBLIC INCOME of the UNITED KINGDOM in the Year ended the 30th day of September, 1861.

Customs	£23,488,000	0	0	Interest and Management of the Permanent Debt ...	£23,716,417	0	7
Excise	18,624,000	0	0	Unclaimed Dividends paid	27,601	4	10
Stamps	8,426,170	12	0	Terminable Annuities ...	1,826,504	10	9
Taxes (Land and Assessed)	3,130,000	0	0	Interest of Exchequer Bonds, 1855, &c. ...	111,250	0	0
Property Tax	11,133,000	0	0	Interest of Exchequer Bills, Supply ...	310,606	18	1
Post (Mice)	3,470,000	0	0	Interest of Exchequer Bills, Deficiency ...	1,856	5	0
Crown Lands (Net) ...	292,478	19	4	Charges on Consol. Fund :—			
Miscellaneous :—				Civil List ...	403,872	10	0
Produce of the Sale of Old Stores, and other Military and Naval extra Receipts	553,454	3	11	Annuities and Pensions	333,884	0	5
Money received from the Revenues of India for retired Pay, Pensions, &c.	130,000	0	0	Salaries and Allowances	155,872	16	4
Miscellaneous Receipts, including Imprest and other Monies	526,579	18	8	Diplomatic Salaries and Pensions ...	172,563	10	1
Unclaimed Dividends received	32,477	3	0	Courts of Justice ...	698,312	18	4
Total Revenue	69,806,160	16	11	Miscellaneous Charges :—			
Excess of Expenditure over Income in the Year ended 30th Sept., 1861	1,445,515	11	8	Drawback on Wine ...	4,604	0	6
				Expenses of Fortifications	300,000	0	0
				Other Charges ...	204,349	8	1
				Supply Services :—			
				Army	14,985,868	11	2
				Navy (excluding Packet Service) ...	12,888,042	7	3
				Mis. Civil Service ...	3,194,755	5	0
				Salaries, &c. of Revenue Departments ...	4,672,106	6	4
				Post Office Packet Service	1,109,778	0	0
				China, Naval and Military Operations ...	1,130,000	0	0
				Extraordinary Expenses of the late war with Russia	53,430	15	10
				Total Expenditure	£71,251,676	8	7
	£71,251,676	8	7				

AN ACCOUNT of the BALANCES of the PUBLIC MONEY remaining in the EXCHEQUER on the 30th day of September, 1861.

Balances in the Exchequer on the 30th Sept., 1860	£3,927,971	4	0	Applied to the Reduction of Funded Debt, 23,790 <i>l.</i> 3 <i>s.</i> 4 <i>d.</i> ; Unfunded Debt (Exchequer Bonds) 1,000,000 <i>l.</i> ...	£1,023,790	3	4
Money raised in the Year ended 30th September, 1861.				Issued to the Paymaster-General :—			
Funded Debt :—				In Exchequer Bills, to exchange Exchequer Bills (Supply) ...	10,926,500	0	0
By the creation of Terminable Annuities to provide for Fortifications, &c. ...	600,000	0	0	In Money, out of Ways and Means Grants, to pay off Exchequer Bills (Supply) ...	2,252,700	0	0
Unfunded Debt :—				Excess of Expenditure over Income in the Year ended 30th Sept., 1861	1,445,515	11	8
Exchequer Bills (Supply), in part of Grant of 13,230,000 <i>l.</i> ...	4,863,500	0	0	Balances in Exchequer at the Bank of England and Ireland on the 30th Sept., 1861 ...	2,882,001	0	7
Exchequer Bills to replace, in part, Bills paid off in money ...	1,000,000	0	0				
Dated 11th June, 1861, in part of 13,230,000 <i>l.</i> ...	6,063,000	0	0				
Exchequer Bonds :—							
Series G.	1,000,000	0	0				
Series H.	594,000	0	0				
Repayments for Bullion and Local Works 1,447,100 <i>l.</i> 9 <i>s.</i> 9 <i>d.</i> Less Advances for the same 965,064 <i>l.</i> 18 <i>s.</i> 2 <i>d.</i>	482,035	11	7				
	£18,530,506	15	7				
					£18,530,506	15	7

SERIES A.

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[349]

EXPORT DUTY ON RAGS.

Report of the Select Commission appointed to inquire into the Duties of Prohibition in Foreign Countries on the Export of Rags used in the Manufacture of Paper in the United Kingdom, and their Effect upon that Manufacture.

THE committee was appointed on the 28th of May, and on the 2nd of July, 1861, was nominated as follows:—Mr. Norris, Viscount Holmesdale, Mr. Hutt, Mr. Gilpin, Mr. Maguire, Mr. Turner, Mr. Caird, Mr. Du Cane, Mr. Watlington, Mr. Kennard, Mr. Woods, Mr. Dodson, Mr. Buxton, Mr. Tucker Smith, and Mr. Dawson. The committee met seven times, and examined the following witnesses:—Mr. John Evans, of the firm John Dickenson and Co.; Mr. Frederick A. Magnay, of Delane, Magnay and Co.; Mr. Thomas Chilmers, of Linlithgow; Mr. Thomas Harry Saunders, Kent; Mr. Henry Bruce, of Kenleath, near Edinburgh; Mr. Thomas Wrigley, Bury; Mr. Archibald Kentrea, of Dublin; Mr. William Thomas, of High Wycombe; Mr. Alfred Green, of Cork; Mr. Archibald T. Somerville, of Edinburgh; Mr. George Chater, of Messrs. Grosvenor, Chater and Co.; Mr. John Carlisle, of C. C. and I. G. Potter Darwer in Lancashire; Mr. Heyhen Archer, of Ballyclare, near Belfast; Mr. Benjamin Brown, of Tonbridge; Mr. Louis Mallet, of the Board of Trade; Mr. Louis Floersheim, Bengal merchant; Mr. Richard Valpy, of the Board of Trade; Mr. Collet Dobson Collet, Secretary of the Association for Promoting the Repeal of the Taxes on Knowledge.

On the 25th July, the committee reported as follows:—

“That it appears, from the evidence of various papermakers from the neighbourhood of London, Lancashire, Scotland, the north and south of Ireland, and other parts of the United Kingdom, that the portion of their trade which is engaged in the manufacture of white paper for printing, is in a state of unprecedented depression.

“That though this depression may be in some degree due to the prospective remission of the excise duty on paper on the 1st of October next, and the consequent withholding of orders for paper in the interim, yet that it had already taken place before there was any prospect of the repeal of the excise duty, and is mainly due to the competition with foreign paper introduced into the English market, at a price with which the English manufacturers declare themselves unable to compete.

“That this comparative cheapness of paper of foreign manufacture is mainly due to the artificial cheapness of the rags from which the paper is made.

“That this artificial cheapness is produced by means of prohibitions and duties on the export of rags from the various European States, which in the three countries supplying the largest quantities of paper to the British market are as follows:—In Belgium, a prohibition; in France, till lately, a prohibition, but now a duty of 4*l.* 17*s.* 2*d.* per ton; and in Germany, a duty of 9*l.* 3*s.* per ton on the export of rags, while in other countries there are other duties, as shown in the return hereto annexed.

“That the paper manufacture stands, in relation to the material on which it is based, in a peculiar and exceptional position when compared with the

[351]

other staple trades of the country, inasmuch as in their case the raw material is produced with a special reference to the purpose to which it is applied, and the producer obtains a profit upon it. So that there is a mutual sympathy between the producer and the consumer, which ensures an adjustment of the supply to the demand; while in the case of the paper manufacture, the material used being a refuse product composed of the cast-off garments of the people, and the waste from manufacturing operations, is produced without any reference to the purpose to which it is applied, and quite irrespective of the demand or the price paid for it; so that it thus becomes the interest of the producer to curtail and limit the production as far as possible.

"That in consequence of the peculiar nature of the material, the effect of the prohibitions and duties on the export of rags from various countries is not so much to limit their production in countries where these restrictions are in force, as by preventing free trade to keep down the price of rags in such countries below what it would be were the market open.

"That the production of paper in this country is in excess of the supply of the material of which it is now made, and the British paper manufacture is in consequence dependent for a large portion of its supplies on foreign rags, amounting to about 15,000 tons per annum, which is by estimation a fifth of the whole quantity of rags used for the manufacture of white paper in this country, and on nearly the whole of which heavy export duties are paid.

"That the committee has inquired into the possibility of drawing supplies of rags from more distant sources where these export duties do not exist, and find that the expense of transit on an article so low in value forms a serious obstacle to its introduction, except during periods of comparatively high prices.

"That the committee have directed their especial attention to inquiring as to the possibility of applying any new fibre as a substitute for the refuse material now in use for papermaking purposes, and find that great efforts have been made to discover some material of this nature, but as yet with little success; and although they see no reason to doubt that straw, and other fibrous substances, may form a supplementary part of the material for papermaking, the great comparative expense of chemically reducing these raw fibres presents difficulties to their becoming a substitute for the refuse material now used.

"That the inevitable consequence of the export duties abroad is the same as that of an import duty here, viz.: to enhance the price of all rags in Britain as compared with the Continent, and that there is no prospect of an equalization of the price of rags in this country, and those where an export duty is levied, as the Americans are constant purchasers of European rags, and having to pay export duties on the Continent and none here, they will maintain the prices of British rags at the same amount as that in any other country with the export duties added.

"That even were not this the case, the whole of the rags now exported to Britain from any Continental state where export duties are levied might be retained for manufacture into paper in that state, before any sensible advance would take place in their price, and that British papermakers might thus lose about one-fifth of their supply of rags before there was any tendency to any such equalization in price as above referred to; and, further, that a quantity of rags, approaching 20,000 tons per annum, is

exported from Europe to America, which might in like manner be retained for conversion into paper in the countries where produced before any equalization in price could take place, while the American manufacturers would be driven into this market for a supply of rags to that amount.

"That, under these circumstances, the disadvantage as to the cost of his material under which the British papermaker labours when brought into competition with his continental rivals appears to be permanent, so long as there are restrictions upon the trade in his raw materials, and a free exportation of his material to America; and the most disastrous consequences must ensue to the British paper manufacturer unless some steps are speedily taken to place him on terms of fair competition with those of the Continent.

That up to the 16th of August last the British paper trade had been preserved from the effects of the export duties on foreign rags by means of a customs duty of $2\frac{1}{4}d.$ per pound on foreign paper, or a penny per pound above the English excise duty.

That previously to 1853, the duty on foreign paper had been protective, if not prohibitive; but that on the revision of the tariff in that year, with a view of removing all duties of a protective character, it was fixed at $2\frac{1}{4}d.$ per pound, on the recommendation of the late Right Honourable James Wilson, the then secretary of the treasury.

"That previous to the reduction of the import duty on foreign paper, in August last, foreign papermakers were able to compete in the English market with our own manufacturers, and that under the differential customs duty then existing, considerable quantities of foreign paper were imported into this country; thereby proving the great advantage the foreign manufacturer possessed in the lower price of his material under the protection of these export duties.

"That the immediate effect of the reduction of the import duty was a very large influx of foreign paper. The imports having increased from 1,468,992 lbs. in the year ending March, 1860, to 4,735,136 lbs. in the year ending March, 1861, and having had the effect of reducing the price of the English paper brought into competition with it, ten per cent., so as to entail a loss on the working of some mills, and drive others to go upon half time, while the foreign makers have been able to secure an enhanced price.

"That with reference to the position of the British papermaker in colonial and other markets, the committee find that the export of paper from this country in 1855 was 11,000,000 lbs.; in 1856, 14,000,000 lbs.; in 1857, 16,000,000 lbs.; in 1858, 16,000,000 lbs.; in 1859, 20,000,000 lbs.; and in 1860, 15,000,000 lbs., and is almost exclusively confined to paper of the highest quality, such as fine writing papers, account books, and other specialities, but in what may be called the staple articles of the trade, there is practically no export trade.

"That all the papermakers examined concur in repudiating any desire for protective duties as against any natural facilities or advantages which foreign nations may possess and express themselves as willing to accept an open competition on free trade principles, based as in other trades in this country on free markets, both for the materials and manufactured goods of foreign nations.

"That at the present time the British paper manufacturer is paying a price for rags and other paper-making materials enhanced by means of

foreign export duties, while he is called upon at the same time to compete with paper manufactured in countries that prohibit or tax the export of rags.

"That during the last session of parliament, when it was proposed to assimilate the customs and excise duties upon paper, it was announced to the House by her Majesty's Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, that the Emperor of the French was willing to remove the prohibition upon the export of French rags, but instead of a removal of the prohibition there has been substituted for it a duty of 4*l.* 17*s.* 2*d.* per ton, which is stated to be equivalent to a bounty of about 7*l.* per ton on French paper exported to this country.

"That the removal of the excise duty on paper will not place the English manufacturer in a position of equality with his continental rivals, so long as the export duties on rags remain in force abroad.

"The committee, therefore, recommend that the British Government should continue strenuous exertions to effect the removal of all restrictions abroad upon the export of all paper-making materials."

The following items are gathered from the evidence and appendix.

Substitutes for Rags.—Straw is used in the manufacture of paper; but the paper made from that is of a different character from that which is made from rags, and the cost of bleaching is so great that any slight advance in the cost of the bleaching salts tells enormously on the cost of the paper. If straw were to advance to 4*l.* a ton, it would be nearly impossible to make paper from it to compete with rag-made paper, at the present price of rags. The straw used is the ordinary wheat straw. Mr. Magnay stated "there was a party who invested a large sum of money, and took a mill near Cambridge, and endeavoured to use the refuse of flax, and after going on for a long time and making those experiments, he found it so costly that it was abandoned. For a long time we offered him 30*l.* a ton for 15 tons of pulp, and he never was able to produce it; he made it in small quantities. You may produce, as an experiment, four or five pounds, but on a large scale it is often a failure. In the county in which I am (Norfolk), it is a *sine quâ non* in many leases that the straw must be used on the land. In other counties you may obtain it, but it takes between three and four tons of straw to make one ton of paper, and as straw varies from 3*l.* to 4*l.* a ton, compared with the price of rags, and the expense incurred for bleaching, it is so great, it does not answer as a substitute. Another great difficulty is, that it depends on how it is housed or stacked. If it is cut green, or the quality of the straw is bad, your paper varies very much; one day it may be good, and two days afterwards it will vary, simply from the quality of the straw; straw will never stand competition with rags in the production of first-class paper."

Flax waste, flax refuse, and that sort of flax which, being grown for seed, is not applicable for making linen, are usable for paper, and by a process lately discovered, almost every vegetable with fibre in it may be converted into very good paper. The difficulty of removing the silica is the great impediment to the use of the raw materials. The process by which Mr. Houghton removes the silica from flax and other materials is as follows:—He boils the raw material (whatever it is, whether flax, or straw, or wood shavings) in an alkaline solution up to 370 and 390 degrees. At 370 degrees no perceptible effect is produced; at 390 it burns; it is entirely between these two degrees that the effect of the solution appears, which is

entirely to remove the whole of the silica, and that process is equally applicable to all materials of that class.

Price of Rags.—Mr. Evans stated that the foreigners have an advantage over the British on the cost of the raw material, especially the German and other makers, where the export duties range as high as from 7*s.* to 9*s.* a cwt., or 7*l.* to 9*l.* a ton on rags. But the yield of paper from the ordinary run of best rags is about 75 per cent., so that by the time the rags are converted into paper, the 9*l.* on the rags would have become 12*l.* on the paper. Mr. Bruce was of the same opinion, that the effect of the foreign export duties on rags is to increase the cost of home-made paper about 12*l.* a ton. A ton of medium quality printing paper is worth about 50*l.*, and although the price of the raw material has increased, the price of paper has decreased through competition. The prices of white linen rags generally in foreign countries were as follows:—

In Paris, in May last, white rags were from 22*s.* to 22*s.* 6*d.* per cwt.; white country rags, 22*s.* 10*d.* to 23*s.* 3*d.*; in the department de l'Isere, white rags, 20*s.* to 20*s.* 5*d.* per cwt.; in the Department du Jura, 20*s.* 10*d.* to 21*s.* 3*d.* per cwt.; in the Cote d'Or and De l'Ardeche, 19*s.* 8*d.* to 20*s.* In South Germany the average price of white rags was 19*s.*; in Brussels, white linen rags, 18*s.* to 20*s.*; white cotton, 14*s.* to 15*s.* 3*d.* I have also some other prices extracted from the German papermakers' journal, the "Central-Blatt fur Deutsche papier fabrikation," for May last: in Konigsberg white linen rags were 15*s.* 9*d.* per cwt.; in Berlin, 18*s.* 9*d.* per cwt.; in Westphalia and the Rhenish Provinces, 19*s.* 6*d.* It is difficult to say the exact quality, but I should say that in England the price was at that time from 28*s.* to 30*s.* per cwt.

Most of those rags are analogous to our English "fines," or generally a little better, as they contain a much larger proportion of linen rags. Take the first three classes of white rags in Paris; the white country rags would be worth in this market 28*s.* or 30*s.*; on May the 10th, last year, white rags were worth 22*s.* a cwt., which at the same time in England were certainly worth 30*s.* At that time the price of white rags in Paris was 55 francs the 100 kilogrammes, and they could be got to England at 70 francs the 100 kilogrammes.

There has been a great scarcity of rags in this country, and the prices have risen considerably; 15 or 20 years ago the prices for our local collection of the better class rags were from 11*s.* 6*d.* to 12*s.* per cwt., and for coarse rags 4*s.* 6*d.* per cwt.; in 1858 and 1859 the price of the same description of rags was 15*s.* to 16*s.* for the better rags, and 7*s.* 6*d.* for the coarse; and in the years 1860 and 1861, they advanced to 17*s.* and 9*s.* 6*d.* respectively. Another description of rags, termed "colours," in 1852 cost 6*s.* per cwt.; in 1859, 8*s.*, and in 1860, 12*s.*

The following table from the appendix shows a large increase in the consumption of paper within the last 30 years, from 62,882,830 lbs. in 1830, to 223,575,285 lbs. in 1860, whilst the quantity of paper made from imported rags has diminished from 24 per cent. of the whole in 1830, to 11 per cent. in 1860. The quantity of paper exported is only given since 1846, and it has increased from 4,836,556 lbs. in 1846, to 15,754,272 lbs. in 1860.

THE QUANTITIES OF PAPER made and of Rags, &c., imported into the UNITED KINGDOM, and Quantities and Per-centage of Paper made from Imported Rags, in each Year from 1830 to 1860; and the Quantities of BRITISH PAPER exported in each Year from 1846 to 1860, were as follows:—

Years	Quantities of Paper made.	Quantities of Rags, &c., Imported.	Quantities of Paper that Imported Rags would make.	Per-centage of Paper from Imported Rags to Total Make of Paper.	Years	Quantities of Paper made.	Quantities of Rags, &c., Imported.	Quantities of Paper that Imported Rags would make.	Per-centage of Paper from Imported Rags to Total Make of Paper.	Quantities of British-made Paper Exported.
	Lbs.	Tons.	Lbs.	Per Cent.		Lbs.	Tons.	Lbs.	Per Cent.	Lbs.
1830	62,882,830	9,607	15,063,776	24	1846	127,442,482	10,140	15,899,580	12	4,886,556
1831	62,024,246	7,199	11,288,032	18	1847	121,965,315	6,583	10,322,144	12	5,553,979
1832	64,935,467	6,671	10,460,128	15	1848	121,820,229	7,191	11,275,488	9	5,180,286
1833	68,418,965	9,540	14,958,720	22	1849	132,132,660	6,253	10,902,204	9	5,966,319
1834	70,605,889	10,965	17,193,120	24	1850	141,032,474	8,124	12,738,432	9	7,762,686
1835	74,042,650	9,903	15,527,904	20	1851	150,903,543	10,614	16,442,752	10	8,305,598
1836	77,692,282	11,381	17,688,608	22	1852	154,469,211	7,696	13,067,328	8	7,328,886
1837	88,950,845	13,079	20,507,872	23	1853	177,633,010	9,687	15,175,104	9	13,296,874
1838	93,466,286	8,072	12,656,896	13	1854	177,896,224	11,415	17,898,720	10	16,112,020
1839	97,646,444	9,237	14,483,616	14	1855	166,776,394	9,414	14,761,152	9	11,118,551
1840	97,227,258	9,255	14,511,340	14	1856	187,716,575	10,284	16,125,312	9	14,798,979
1841	97,105,550	6,573	10,306,464	10	1857	191,721,620	12,196	19,123,328	9	16,031,063
1842	96,692,222	6,569	10,200,192	10	1858	192,347,825	11,379	17,842,272	9	16,546,938
1843	108,449,627	7,954	12,471,372	11	1859	217,227,127	14,598	22,989,664	10	20,142,260
1844	106,495,148	7,061	11,071,648	10	1860	222,575,285	16,123	25,280,864	11	15,754,272
1845	124,247,071	7,809	11,460,512	9						

AGRICULTURAL STATISTICS.

Agricultural Statistics of Ireland for the Year 1860.

TILLAGE.—The surface of Ireland was divided as follows in 1860:—Under crops, including meadow and clover, 5,970,139 acres; grass or pasture, 9,483,634; fallow and uncropped arable land, 35,833; woods and plantations, 315,324; bog and waste, &c., 4,479,963 acres.

Crops.—Of the 5,970,139 acres under crops, there were—Under oats, 1,966,304 acres; potatoes, 1,172,079; meadow and clover, 1,594,518; making together, 4,732,901 (equal to 79 per cent. of the entire area under cultivation), leaving for the remaining crops 1,237,238 acres. Of this latter number the extent under wheat was 466,415 acres, equal to 7·8 per cent.; barley, 181,099, equal to 3·0; turnips, 318,540, equal to 5·3; flax, 128,595, equal to 2·2 per cent. The remaining 142,589 acres were occupied by bere, rye, beans, pease, mangel-wurzel, carrots, parsnips, cabbage, vetches, “other green crops,” and rape—equal to 2·4 per cent. of the whole extent under tillage. Compared with 1859, the area under wheat showed an increase of 2,240 acres; barley, 3,205; mangel-wurzel, 5,080; vetches, 8,520; meadow and clover, 157,407; and rye, pease, parsnips, and “other green crops,” 1,138 acres. The crops which showed a decrease were—oats, 16,358 acres; potatoes, 28,268; cabbage, 8,895; flax, 7,687; turnips, 3,597; beans, 2,081; carrots, 1,184; rape, 1,282; bere, 694; and beet-root, 10 acres. On the whole, there was an increase in the acreage under crops of 107,534 acres.

In cereal crops Leinster and Ulster had an increased area in 1860—the former of 896, the latter of 7,964 acres. Munster and Connaught exhibited a decrease of 11,310 and 10,946 acres respectively. In green crops Ulster only gave an increase, amounting to 2,074 acres. Each of the remaining provinces decreased in the extent grown, as follows:—Leinster, 16,347 acres; Munster, 9,538; and Connaught, 3,697 acres. In flax there was a decrease in each of the provinces. In Ulster—to which the cultivation of this crop is almost entirely confined—it amounted to 6,915 acres. Meadow and clover increased to the extent of 66,245 acres in Leinster; 44,821 in Munster; 22,494 in Ulster; 23,847 in Connaught.

The crops which seem to decline in cultivation are barley, bere, and rye. Barley gradually decreased, from 236,293 acres in 1854, to 181,099 in 1860. The decline in the cultivation of bere is remarkable, 16,920 having been grown in 1854, and only 3,057 in 1860. Rye also diminished, though not in so large a proportion—11,366 acres having been cultivated in 1854, and 9,677 in 1860. Pease also have diminished in extent in a remarkable manner, 7,815 acres having been grown in 1854, and only 1,598 in 1860. The cultivation of mangel-wurzel has considerably increased in the period between 1854 and 1860, 21,351 acres having been under that crop in the former, and 31,986 in the latter year. The cultivation of beans was greater in 1854 than in any year since, 14,760 acres having been grown in that year, and 11,234 acres in 1860.

Beans and pease fluctuate considerably, compared with other crops, in the proportion grown, in the several counties. In Antrim there were 2,787 acres under beans and pease, the total area under crops being 259,547 acres; in Down, 1,225 acres, to a total under crops of 333,895 acres; in Carlow, there were 5 acres returned in 1860; in Cavan, 50; in Clare, 231; in Cork,

62; in Dublin, 227; in Fermanagh, 90; in Galway, 31; in Kerry, 21; in Kildare, 30; in Kilkenny and King's, 25 each; in Leitrim, 5; in Limerick and Longford, 38 each; in Londonderry, 380; in Louth, 556; in Mayo, 33; in Meath, 365; in Monaghan, 128; in Queen's, 46; in Roscommon, 3; in Sligo, 6; in Tipperary, 98; in Tyrone, 192; in Waterford, 7; in Westmeath, 68; in Wexford, 5,291; and in Wicklow, 20 acres.

Beans and pease were chiefly cultivated in Leinster and Ulster. In Leinster, 6,696 acres was the extent in 1860, of which 5,291 were grown in the county of Wexford alone. In Ulster the area was 5,601 acres. The potato failure appears for some years to have had the effect of promoting the cultivation of beans and pease. The total extent under these crops in 1847 was 23,768 acres; in 1849 it was 53,916 acres; in 1850 it was 62,590 acres; and since that period it has gradually declined until 1860, when the extent grown was 12,832 acres, or nearly one-fifth less than in the year 1850.

The grazing lands of Ireland (not including meadow and clover) occupy 51 of every 100 acres of the entire area of Munster, 48·3 of every 100 in Leinster, 46·5 in Connaught, and 40·6 in Ulster. Of the counties, Meath has the largest proportion of grazing land—57·5 acres in every 100 of its entire surface being under grass. Fermanagh, Limerick, Clare, Westmeath, Leitrim, Tipperary, Roscommon, Antrim, Kilkenny, Galway, and Kildare follow next in order, more than one-half of their respective areas being appropriated to grazing. Carlow, Cavan, Cork, Kerry, King's, Longford, Monaghan, Queen's, Sligo, Waterford, Wexford, and Wicklow have from 40 to 50 acres, and Armagh, Donegal, Down, Dublin, Londonderry, Mayo, and Tyrone from 30 to 40 acres in every 100, under pasture. Louth has only 28·8 acres under grass in every 100.

The total number of holdings in 1860 was 601,645, being an increase of 2,832 compared with the previous year; this increase is divided amongst each of the classes, 1,214 being the increase on farms above 15 and not exceeding 30 acres.

The extent of the holdings and the number of each size in 1860 are shown in the following summary:—Not exceeding 1 acre, 38,416; above 1 and not exceeding 5 acres, 82,844; 5 and not exceeding 15, 181,358; 15 and not exceeding 30, 140,873; 30 and not exceeding 50, 72,413; 50 and not exceeding 100, 54,018; 100 and not exceeding 200, 21,671; 200 and not exceeding 500, 8,427; above 500 acres, 1,625; total, 601,645. The counties in which the number of holdings increased in 1860, compared with 1859, were Armagh, Down, Galway, Kerry, Kildare, Kilkenny, King's, Limerick, Londonderry, Louth, Mayo, Queen's, Roscommon, Sligo, Tipperary, Tyrone, Waterford, and Westmeath. The number of holdings decreased in Antrim, Carlow, Cavan, Clare, Cork, Donegal, Dublin, Fermanagh, Leitrim, Longford, Meath, Monaghan, Wexford, and Wicklow.

A considerable change has taken place in the number of holdings since 1841. In that year there were 310,436 farms above 1 to 5 acres; these were reduced to 88,083 in 1851, and further to 82,844 in 1860, making a total decrease since 1841 of 227,592, equal to 73 per cent. Farms above 5 to 15 acres, which numbered 252,799 in 1841, decreased to 181,358 in 1860, equal to a reduction of 28 per cent. Farms above 15 to 30 acres, numbered 79,342 in 1841, and 140,873 in 1860, being an increase of nearly 78 per cent. in the period. Farms above 30 acres increased from 48,625 in 1841 to 158,154 in 1860—equal to 225 per cent.

[358]

The several holdings in 1860 were cultivated in the following proportions:—On holdings from 1 to 5 acres, 44 per cent. under cereal crops, 41 under green crops, including potatoes; and 13 under meadow and clover. On farms above 5 to 15 acres, cereal crops occupied 47·86 per cent.; green crops, including potatoes, 32·59; and meadow and clover, 16·22. On the holdings above 5 to 15 acres, the cereal crops gradually decreased from 47·86 acres on the smaller to 27·91 in every 100 acres on the larger farms.

The proportionate extent of potatoes grown on the farms gradually decreased from 37·3 on farms above 1 to 5 acres, to 6·6 in every 100 on farms above 500 acres; but turnips showed a gradual relative increase as the farms increased in size—2·22 per cent. being grown on holdings from 1 to 5 acres, and 8·76 per cent. on those above 500 acres.

“Other green crops” were also grown in greatest proportion on the larger farms.

The proportionate extent under meadow and clover gradually increased from 13·13 per cent. on farms above 1 to 5 acres, to 52·03 per cent. on farms above 500 acres.

Of the total number of holdings, 30 in every 100 were from 5 to 15 acres in extent; 23 from 15 to 30; and 12 per cent. above 30 to 50. Fifty-nine in every 100 acres of the land comprising the farms above 500 acres were bog and waste—the proportion under which gradually decreases as the farm diminishes in size, until, on the smallest holdings, it covers 7·3 per cent. The average extent of the holdings not exceeding 1 acre was 2R. 16P.; of farms above 500 acres it was 1,237A. 3R. 7P. On the remaining classes it was nearly a mean between the extremes denoting the extent.

The information respecting the estimated produce of the crops was procured, as in former years, by intelligent members of the constabulary, from respectable farmers and other persons conversant with the average yield per acre of the several crops grown in the electoral division in which they lived. The rates thus obtained were then submitted to the chairman and board of guardians of the several unions for their approval or revision; and the returns have been revised for 2,415 out of 3,438 electoral divisions—the entire number in Ireland. The items comprised were the area of each county in statute acres, and the extent under cereals, potatoes, and other crops; also, the produce of the grain crops in “quarters,” and of potatoes in tons; and showed for all Ireland the acreage under the principal crops in 1847, and in each year from 1849 to 1860. The yield per acre and total produce were also given, as well as the estimated average produce, and the extent of land under each crop by counties and provinces.

On comparing the yield, as shown by the returns, it appeared that in 1860 wheat produced a less quantity per acre—(4½ barrels of 20 stones)—than in any year since 1849, with the exception of 1850, when the estimated acreable yield was only 4½ barrels. Oats and barley gave a better yield than in 1859, and with a less acreage, produced a greater quantity of grain. Bere and rye decreased in yield, and beans and pease increased. As regards the potato crop, the produce was considerably under that given for any of the previous twelve years. Turnips, mangel, and cabbage also decreased in yield; but flax and hay show a favourable increase over the previous year.

There was much variation reported in the crops as grown in different localities. Thus, in the midland districts, turnips were stated to be generally inferior, although some crops were good, and yielded about 30 tons to the statute acre. Potatoes also were very variable, the late sown and not

well manured being very inferior; the disease was said to be general, and the quality of the tubers of those that were sound was not equal to former years. Hay was a heavy crop, although many of the low-lying meadows suffered from floods. Early oats were good and productive; but late crops, in many instances, suffered, and were not maturely ripened; their yield was, consequently, very light. In some of the northern districts, oats, both as regards grain and straw, were stated to have been little inferior to former years. Hay was said to be about the same; potatoes yielded about half compared with the crop of 1859; and turnips and cabbages afforded but very small crops.

The following is the estimated produce of the principal crops grown in 1859 and 1860:—

					1859.		1860.
					Quarters.		Quarters.
Wheat	1,468,475	...	1,271,588
Oats	8,170,856	...	8,841,924
Barley	694,004	...	750,245
Bere	18,111	...	14,113
Rye	27,792	...	27,896
					Tons.		Tons.
Potatoes	4,329,523	...	2,741,380
Turnips	3,462,071	...	2,627,978
Mangel-wurzel	307,946	...	290,241
Cabbage	329,997	...	188,711
Flax	21,577	...	23,760
Hay	2,321,779	...	3,206,403

It will be observed that there was an increase in 1860 of 727,413 quarters in the produce of oats, barley, and rye, and a decrease of 200,885 quarters in wheat and bere, leaving a net increase of 526,528 quarters in the yield of cereal crops. Wheat, notwithstanding a greater extent having been sown than in 1859, shows a diminished produce; potatoes show a decrease of 1,588,143 tons; turnips, 834,093 tons; mangel-wurzel, 17,705 tons; and cabbage, 141,286 tons; making a total decrease in the produce of potatoes and green crops of 2,581,227 tons. The yield of flax was more by 2,183 tons, owing to a considerable increase in the produce, the breadth sown being less by 7,687 acres than in 1859. Hay also shows a large increase—884,623 tons, there being 157,407 acres more of meadow lands in 1860, and an increased yield of 8 cwt. per statute acre, being the largest total produce of any year since 1847.

The fluctuations in the yield per acre of these crops in 1859 and 1860 were as under:—

					1859.		1860.
Wheat, in barrels of 20 stones	5·3	...	4·6
Oats, " 14 "	6·6	...	7·2
Barley " 16 "	7·0	...	7·5
Bere " 16 "	7·5	...	7·1
Rye " 20 "	4·8	...	4·7
Potatoes " 20 "	28·9	...	18·7
Turnips, in tons	10·7	...	8·3
Mangel-wurzel, in tons	11·4	...	9·1
Cabbage, in tons	10·4	...	8·3
Flax, in stones of 14 lbs.	25·3	...	29·6
Hay, in tons	1·6	...	2·0

The highest acreable yield of wheat in 1860 was in the county of Londonderry, in which $6\frac{1}{2}$ barrels per acre was returned as the average produce; the lowest average yield was in Queen's County— $3\frac{1}{2}$ barrels to the acre. The

highest acreable yield of oats was in Dublin— $9\frac{3}{10}$ barrels to the acre; and the lowest in Monaghan—6 barrels. Sligo gave the highest yield for barley— $9\frac{1}{10}$ barrels per acre; and Clare the lowest— $5\frac{1}{2}$ barrels. Dublin gave the highest yield in bere— $10\frac{1}{2}$ barrels to the acre; and Cavan and Kerry the lowest— $4\frac{1}{2}$ barrels. Potatoes gave the highest produce per acre in Mayo, where the rate was $24\frac{1}{2}$ barrels; and the lowest in Wexford, in which they were only $10\frac{2}{10}$ barrels to the acre. The acreable produce of turnips was highest in Donegal— $10\frac{1}{2}$ tons; and lowest in King's County— $6\frac{1}{2}$ tons. Mangel-wurzel was also returned as highest in Donegal, in which the yield was $13\frac{1}{10}$ tons to the acre; and lowest in the Queen's County, in which it was $7\frac{1}{2}$ tons. The highest acreable produce for hay was in the county of Armagh— $2\frac{1}{2}$ tons to the acre; and the lowest in Donegal and Kildare, in each of which it was returned as $1\frac{1}{10}$ tons to the acre.

Since 1851, the greatest quantity of wheat produced in Ireland was in the year 1858, when the quantity grown was 1,746,464 quarters. Oats was grown in the largest quantity in 1852, the produce being 11,712,528 quarters. The largest quantity of barley grown was in 1853, when it produced 1,398,705 quarters. Bere and rye was grown in greatest quantity in 1851, in which there were 383,336 quarters produced. Last year the produce of these crops was only 42,009 quarters. The highest yield of potatoes was in 1855, when the estimated total produce was 6,235,281 tons. Turnips gave the highest yield in 1853, the produce in that year having been 6,562,471 tons. Mangel-wurzel was produced in the greatest quantity in 1853, when the yield was 588,988 tons. Hay was produced in the greatest quantity in 1860, when the yield was 3,206,402 tons.

Stock.—The number of horses, cattle, sheep, and pigs in Ireland in 1860 was as follows:—Horses, 619,811, being a decrease of 9,264 on the previous year; mules, 19,689, being an increase of 385. Asses numbered 167,845, being 1,509 less than in 1859. Cattle numbered 3,606,374, being 209,224 under those returned in the previous year. The sheep were 3,542,080, showing a decrease of 50,724 on 1859; pigs numbered 1,271,072, being 5,321 more than in the previous year; poultry decreased 190,973, the total number returned in 1860 having been 10,060,776; goats decreased by 24,821, the number in 1860 being 194,465. These animals have been gradually decreasing in number since 1854.

The value of stock in 1860 was as follows:—Horses and mules, at 8*l*. each, 5,116,000*l*.; asses, at 1*l*. each, 167,845*l*.; cattle, at 6*l*. 10*s*. each, 2,344,143*l*.; sheep, at 1*l*. 2*s*. each, 3,896,288*l*.; pigs, at 1*l*. 5*s*. each, 1,588,840*l*.; goats, at 7*s*. 6*d*. each, 72,924*l*.; and poultry, at 6*d*. each, 251,520*l*.; total, 34,500,000*l*.

Scutching Mills.—There were 1,044 mills for scutching flax in Ireland in 1860; of these 1,016 were in Ulster, 15 in Leinster, 8 in Munster, and 5 in Connaught. 259 were in the county Donegal, of which 258 were worked by water-power and 1 by steam; 180 were in the county of Down, of which 129 were water-mills, 27 were worked by steam, 20 by the wind, and 4 were worked by both water and steam. In Londonderry there were 164 scutching mills, of which 155 were moved by water, 7 had steam-power, and 2 were worked by both water and steam. Tyrone had 145 mills, of which 3 only were steam, 1 was worked by horses, and the remaining 141 were moved by water. In Armagh there were 107 mills, of which 10 were worked by steam, 4 by water and steam combined, and 2 by horse-power; the remaining 91 being water-mills. In Antrim there were 89 mills, of

which 84 were worked by water, 3 by steam, and 2 by water and steam. In the county of Monaghan there were 50 of these mills, of which 44 were moved by water, 4 by steam, 1 by water and steam, and 1 by horses. Cavan and Fermanagh had each 11 of these mills. Of the total number of mills in Ireland, 941 were worked by the streams and rivers of the country, 63 were worked by steam, 14 had both water and steam power, 4 were moved by horses, and 20 by the wind—these latter being all in the county of Down. The only scutching mill in the county Leitrim was worked by the prisoners in the gaol of Carrick-on-Shannon.

ORDNANCE SURVEY.

Report of the Progress of the Ordnance Survey and Topographical Dépôt.

England.—In the report of the progress of the ordnance survey to the 31st December, 1859, it was stated that the six northern counties of England which have been ordered to be surveyed on the larger scales of six inches and twenty-five inches to a mile, would be finished during the present financial year, but in consequence of the very numerous and extensive surveys which have been ordered for purposes connected with the defences of the country, and upon which 390 surveyors and draftsmen have been employed, the progress in the north of England has been greatly retarded, and the surveys of Northumberland and Cumberland are still unfinished. The progress of the survey was also greatly retarded by the almost unprecedented wet summer and cold severe winter.

Scotland.—The progress of the survey of Scotland, and of the revision of the northern counties of Ireland, has been also greatly retarded by the same causes, a portion of the surveyors and draftsmen for the military surveys having been taken from the parties employed in those parts of the kingdom. The surveys of the counties of Dumbarton, Stirling, and Clackmannan were finished last year, and the survey is now proceeding in Perthshire and Forfarshire, and these counties will be finished during the financial year 1861-2.

Ireland.—The revision of the county of Armagh has been finished during the last year, and the revision is now in progress in the county of Louth. The outline map of Ireland, on the scale of one inch to a mile, will be finished on the 31st March next, and twelve sheets, with the hill features engraved, have been published, and several others are in progress. Numerous plans on the $\frac{1}{2500}$ scale, replotted from the original survey, have been made during the last year for the Landed Estates Court, the Judges of the Court having found from experience that for the registration and transfer of property, plans on this scale, and made under the authority of Government, are absolutely necessary; but the entire cost of replotting these plans is paid by the Court out of the proceeds of the sales of the estates.

MILITARY SURVEYS.—*London and the Thames.*—This survey will embrace a considerable area round London.

Chatham and Sheerness.—This will embrace a large area round these towns.

Portsmouth and the Isle of Wight.—This includes a district round Portsmouth, extending from the east of Hayling Island to the river Hamble, about 10 miles, with a breadth of about 6 miles, and part of the Isle of Wight.

Plymouth and its Environs.—This includes a district of about 13 miles in length E. and W., and of about 6 miles in depth N. and S.

Pembroke and its Environs.—This includes an area of 10 miles in length by about 7 in depth, besides several detached portions.

Dover.—This includes an area of 5 miles by 4 miles round the town.

Harwich.—This includes an area of 5 miles by 3 miles.

Torbay.—This includes the whole bay, and a belt of country about 1 mile in width round it.

East Hampton.—About 2 miles in width and 1 in depth.

Shoreham.—About 6 miles in width and 1 in depth.

Newhaven.—About 6 miles in width and 2 in depth.

Cannock Chase.—About 6 miles in width and 5 in depth.

These military plans on the $\frac{1}{3300}$ scale have been found necessary, and answer perfectly both for the purchase of the land required for the fortifications and also for the designs for the works themselves.

With the exception of the last, all these surveys are made on the scales which have been adopted for the national survey, and drawn on the projections made for the complete survey of the several counties in which these places are situated, so that if Government and Parliament should approve of the extension of the cadastral survey to the remainder of these counties, the plans now made will form integral portions of the national survey.

It is of great importance, now that we are about to complete the survey of Northumberland and Cumberland, that the question of extending the cadastral survey to the remaining three-fourths of England and Wales should be taken into consideration during the present session of Parliament, because if the cadastral survey is to be extended over the remainder of the country it should be undertaken at once, and whilst we have an admirably trained body of surveyors and draftsmen for the performance of the work.

All parties appear to be agreed as to the importance and necessity of having a court in this country analogous to the Landed Estates Court in Ireland, to give facilities for the transfer and registration of property, and every lawyer knows how important to the working of such a court is an accurate survey made under the authority of the Government; it has been experimentally proved in Ireland, and will undoubtedly be also proved so here.

LEVELLING.—The principal lines of levelling in England and Wales have been printed during the last year; we have already published the principal lines of levelling taken in Ireland; and those of Scotland are now in the press, and will be very shortly published.

TOPOGRAPHICAL AND STATISTICAL DEPOT.—The work done in the present year in the topographical department has been of a very varied description. The survey of the barracks and forts in Great Britain and Ireland has been continued, and 92 barracks and forts have been surveyed and drawn, and the lithography of them is in progress. The third volume of the Barrack Manual, containing the forts and barracks in the Dublin district, is nearly ready for publication. A work, containing returns of the strength, organization, equipment, &c., of the armies of Europe, has been published in three volumes, corresponding in size to the Barrack Manual.

Plans have been lithographed for the Foreign Office, Colonial Office, Treasury, Council of Military Education, and different departments of the War Office, and a large number of drawings of military stores have been printed. Plans, illustrating the movements of the allied forces in China, have

been published, and copies sent to every regiment in the service. Returns of the equipment of an army in the field have been commenced; they are intended to comprise the number, price, and weight of every article necessary for the supply of bodies of troops, of different strength and of all arms of the service. These will be tabulated in books prepared for the purpose, and accompanied by drawings of the several articles. Drawings have been made of the reviews of the volunteers in Hyde Park and Edinburgh before Her Majesty, and will shortly be lithographed and published.

During the past year, an officer of artillery, Major Miller, has been added to the topographical staff, which now comprises an officer of artillery, engineers, and infantry.

FIRES IN THE METROPOLIS.

Report of the Select Committee appointed to inquire into the existing State of Legislation, and of any existing Arrangements for the Protection of Life and Property against Fires in the Metropolis.

THE Committee was appointed the 10th February, 1862, and it consisted of Mr. Hankey, Mr. Cowper, Mr. Locke, Mr. Cave, Mr. Henry B. Sheridan, Mr. Cubitt, Mr. Lewis, Mr. Peacocke, Sir Joseph Paxton, Mr. Benyon, Mr. Alderman Salomons, Mr. Tite, Mr. William Miller, Mr. Vance, and Mr. Clive. The Committee sat thirteen days, and on the 8th May reported as follows:—

Your Committee have endeavoured to obtain the best information as to the actual state of the metropolis and its immediately surrounding parishes, with respect to the protection of the inhabitants, and their property generally, as to the means of extinguishing fires.

The number of fires in London in 1833, was 458; and in 1861, 1,183.

The area of the metropolitan police district includes 217 parishes, with a population of about 3,000,000, residing in about 462,000 houses; and the rateable income for taxation is about 13,500,000*l*. The extent is about 16 miles from Charing Cross, on all sides, and includes an area of about 700 square miles.

This is exclusive of the City of London, which includes 97 parishes, with a population of about 115,000, inhabiting about 13,500 houses: and the rental for rating is about 1,337,000*l*.

Thus the whole of the metropolitan police area and the City of London together, extending over about 700 square miles, may be considered as containing rather above 3,000,000 of inhabitants, residing in about 475,000 houses, and the rental for taxation about 14,800,000*l*.

This area, however, which includes every parish excepting the City of London, of which any part comes within 16 miles of Charing Cross, is considerably larger than the area of the Metropolitan Board of Works, which includes 79 parishes, and covers an area of about 170 square miles, with a population of about 2,800,000, residing in 360,000 houses, with a rental for rating of about 12,450,000*l*. The area of the Metropolitan Board of Works, has been considered sufficient for the objects of the present inquiry.

The only existing Act of Parliament for the prevention of loss by fire, affecting parishes within the bills of mortality, is that of the 14 Geo. 3, c. 78,

called 'An Act for the further and better regulation of buildings and party walls, and for the more effectually preventing mischiefs by fire within the cities of London and Westminster, and the liberties thereof, and other the parishes, precincts, and places within the weekly bills of mortality, the parishes of St. Marylebone, Paddington, St. Pancras, and St. Luke's at Chelsea, in the county of Middlesex.' The clauses in this Act which relate to protection against fire, are 74 to 86, both inclusive, and they are still in force; the other parts of this Act have been repealed by an Act in the 18 & 19 Victoria: by the 75th clause of this Act, every parish is obliged to keep one large engine and one small, called a hand engine, a leathern pipe, and a certain number of ladders. There is, however, a provision in the 3 & 4 Will. 4, c. 90, s. 44, "The Lighting and Watching Act," which extends to England and Wales, to enable the inspectors appointed under that Act to provide and keep up two fire-engines; and it is found that certain of the parishes in the metropolitan district, without the bills of mortality, avail themselves of this provision.

It is difficult to ascertain how far the Act of George the Third is attended to, or when it ceased to be considered practically of importance; your committee have not ascertained that any prosecution or indictment against parishes for non-performance of the strict law has taken place, or that any penalties have been enforced.

For many years previous to 1832, the principal fire insurance offices in London kept fire brigades at their individual expense; to these brigades were attached a considerable number of men usually occupied as Thames watermen, retained in the service of the different fire offices, from whom they received payment only on the occurrence of fires, and they wore the livery and badge of the respective companies. These fire brigades were considered as giving notoriety to the different insurance companies, and a considerable rivalry was maintained, which was productive naturally of good, as well as of some considerable evil on occasions of fires.

The large expenses thus incurred induced an attempt to be made, which was effectually carried out in the year 1832, by Mr. R. Bell Forde, a leading director of the Sun Fire Office, to form one brigade for the purpose of promoting economy, as well as greater efficiency. The London fire brigade thus commenced its operations under the united sanction of, and from funds contributed by, most of the leading insurance offices in London.

The expense at first was 8,000*l.*, the number of men employed 80, and the number of stations 19. This expense has been gradually increasing until it has reached nearly 25,000*l.* during the past year. The number of the men is now 127, and the stations 20.

In 1834, only two years after the commencement of the brigade, and immediately after the destruction by fire of the Houses of Parliament, the attention of the Government was directed by the offices supporting the brigade to the insufficient protection against fire in the great public buildings in London, and a suggestion was made to place the parochial engines under the inspection of the commissioners of police. This recommendation was not adopted by the Government. The insurance offices have again directed the attention of the Government to the subject, and they have addressed a letter, dated 21st February, 1862, to the Secretary of State for the Home Department, stating their wish and intention to give up the brigade at as early a date as may be consistent with the formation of new and efficient

arrangements for the protection generally of the metropolis against fire. They state that so long as the expense was moderate, they did not object to incur it, but that it has now assumed a magnitude which they cannot continue to bear; and that they consider that the public of London have no claim whatever on their respective offices for protection against fire.

Mr. Newmarch states in his evidence that he believes that the total value of property insurable against fire within six miles of Charing Cross is not less than 900,000,000*l.*, and of this not more than about 300,000,000*l.* is insured, and that this property insured now bears, through the medium of the fire offices, the expense of the present fire brigade establishment.

It has been admitted by the witnesses who have given evidence before your committee that the duties of this fire brigade, as far as their means would enable them, have been performed most ably and most efficiently. It has, however, been equally admitted by every witness that the present scale of their staff, engines, and stations is totally inadequate for the general protection of London and its immediate vicinity from the dangers of fire. This is admitted by the managers of the brigade; but as they consider it efficient for the protection of that part of London where the largest amount of insured property is located, they have no desire or intention to add to their expense by placing additional stations in situations where, if a fire occurs, it is not likely to cause such comparative injury to the offices as if it occurred in the water-side warehouses, &c. near the city.

The evidence of every witness bore testimony to the high state of efficiency to which the brigade was brought under the superintendence of the late Mr. Braidwood; and it appears to your committee that it is likely to maintain its reputation under the present superintendent, Captain Shaw.

Whatever new arrangements may be made, the committee cannot avoid expressing an opinion that the services of the existing staff of the London fire brigade ought to be made available in connection with any new system.

In addition to the London fire brigade, brigades have been established and are maintained at considerable expense, and in a very efficient state, by all the dock companies in and near to London. The particulars of these can be seen by reference to the evidence of Mr. Sheppy, on the part of the East and West India Docks, of Mr. Collett on that of the St. Katharine's, Mr. Randall and Mr. Clements on that of the London Docks, and of Mr. Capper on the part of the Victoria Docks.

The arrangements at the East and West India Docks appear to be peculiarly good, and more especially as regards the supply and use of water through means of hydraulic force; in other parts of London there are arrangements made by the owners of property for their own special protection. Your committee, however, would direct particular attention to the established fire brigade kept up in a most efficient and highly praiseworthy manner by Mr. Hodges, at an expense of not less than about 400*l.* a year.

They also call attention to a smaller establishment kept up at the sole expense of Messrs. Brown, Lenox and Co., and of great use in the protection of property against fire, in the Isle of Dogs.

The arrangements generally made by the parishes in the older part of London, under the Act already referred to, are not only entirely useless, but in many instances produce injurious results, as the system under that Act

frequently confers a reward for the first useless parochial engine, whereas the efficient engine, which may be on the spot a few minutes later, derives no pecuniary advantage.

The committee, however, cannot omit to notice that in some of the neighbouring parishes efficient fire establishments are maintained, and charged on parochial rates. This is especially to be noticed at Hackney, where a very efficient brigade is maintained, at an expense of about 500*l.* per annum, which is about one halfpenny in the pound on the rating of the parish.

Your committee have been unable to ascertain with any accuracy what is the total amount paid in the whole by the metropolitan parishes for the maintenance, however inefficient, of their present engines, under the Fire Act, but it must be considerable; it is estimated by Mr. Newmarch from 5,000*l.* to 10,000*l.*, per annum, but nearer 10,000*l.*

If, however, the intentions of the Act of Geo. 3 were enforced, and every parish were bound to maintain an efficient establishment, on the same scale as at Hackney, it is probable that the whole expense would be in the same proportion, say at the rate of a halfpenny in the pound in the rating, or at a gross charge on a rating of 12,000,000*l.*, of not less than 25,000*l.* a year; and then the objection would still exist to the system being purely parochial, and incapable of being brigaded.

The committee would desire to call attention to the establishment called the "Society for the Protection of Life from Fire," particulars of which are set forth in the evidence of Mr. Sampson Low, the present secretary of that institution.

It is supported entirely by voluntary contributions, 75 separate stations have been formed in different parts of London, and great service has been rendered by saving the lives of very many persons.

The society has been in active operation during the last 18 years. It is well conducted, the men of the establishment are reported to be very efficient, and great public benefit has been received from its establishment. The expense of maintenance is about 7,000*l.* a year.

Your committee thought it desirable to ascertain what arrangements were made for protection against fire in some of the principal towns in the United Kingdom besides London, and they selected Liverpool, Manchester, and Glasgow, not only on account of their magnitude, but also on account of the fire arrangements being considered very efficient in all the three towns. In Liverpool there is a fire brigade of about 150, forming an integral part of the large police force of above 1,000 men; the whole management is under the charge of the superintendent of police, Major Greig; the annual expense is estimated at 2,800*l.*, and considering the great efficiency of the arrangements for putting out fires, and the magnitude of the town with 475,000 inhabitants, and rateable property assessed at 1,750,000*l.* per annum, the cost appears to be extremely small; this seems to be owing to the mode by which the duties are amalgamated with those of the ordinary police, a system which, according to Major Greig's evidence, works extremely well, and most economically for the interest of the rate-payers. At Manchester the arrangements for the protection against fire are made under a local Police Act of 7 & 8 Vict., which gives the corporation power to establish fire brigades, and to make charges for expenses incurred for the purpose of extinguishing fires, and to recover the same from owners and occupiers; and this part of the Act is carried out by the

watch committee of the corporation. The men employed are not policemen.

The annual expense at Manchester is about 2,000*l.* one half of which is defrayed out of ordinary rates on the town, and the remainder is paid partly by money recovered from owners of property which has been destroyed by fire to the amount of about 750*l.* per annum, which amount is paid by the fire insurance offices where such property has been insured, and the remainder from owners of property who have not insured.

The population of Manchester is stated to be 346,000, and the rates are assessed on an annual value of 1,387,000*l.*; the fire arrangements are reported to be most efficient, and the cost appears to be very moderate.

At Glasgow the arrangements are also made under a local police act; the cost is about 2,000*l.* a year, as at Manchester, and of this one half is paid by rates on the town; and the remainder is recovered from owners of property, where fires have occurred. The population of Glasgow is above 400,000, and the fire arrangements are stated to be most efficient.

In all these three towns the supply of water, at a high pressure, is almost unlimited, and the power of extinguishing fires by the application of hose-pipes to the water mains gives extraordinary facilities, and in a most economical manner, for effecting this service, almost dispensing with the use of fire engines.

It must, however, be borne in mind, that these three corporations have incurred very large expenses in bringing this water supply into the town; and as this expense has been defrayed by rates, the small apparent cost of extinguishing fires is greatly to be attributed to this circumstance.

As the system of obtaining contributions in aid of the expense of the fire brigade, from the owners of property where fires have occurred, as now in force, at Manchester, has been thought worthy of special commendation by the owners of the London fire brigade, and recommended for adoption in London, your committee have turned their attention to this point.

The supply of water is a matter of great importance in connection with this inquiry, and although your committee did not consider it desirable to institute any particular investigation into the operations of the Water Companies Acts, yet as it was given in evidence that on many occasions, on the south side of the Thames the supply of water was deficient on occasions of fires, your committee thought it right to summon a witness on the part of the water companies supplying the district, and they would refer to the evidence given by Mr. Quick, the engineer of the Southwark Water Company and the Grand Junction Water Company, on this subject.

Some better regulation appears to be desirable to secure the immediate attendance of the fire-cock men, by a special arrangement under some responsible policeman or other person charged with the duty of giving the earliest notices of fires to the turncock.

Mr. Quick stated to your committee, that, in order to secure a constant supply of water for fires, at high pressure, it would be necessary to have a completely new system of fire mains, and that such a new system could not, probably, be effected at a smaller cost, for the whole metropolitan district, than 3,000,000*l.* This opinion is also confirmed by the evidence of Mr. Easton.

Mr. Quick stated that it was owing to the unwillingness of the inhabitants to incur the risk of frequent bursting of pipes from high pressure, that the

system of high pressure was not more generally carried out in the service pipes, and not to any unwillingness on the part of the companies to comply with the provisions contemplated by the Water Companies Act of 1852.

A question has been raised as to the fairness of charging a general rate, on the usual principle, for a fire rate, on account of the exemption thereby afforded to property, not only insurable, but subject to great risk from fire, which will, on such principle, almost escape the payment of rate. This refers to goods, &c., in large London warehouses not now assessed for rating. This could only be effectually remedied by a new and special mode of assessment, so as to make all insurable property contribute to this fire rate. The amount of the charge for such protection would not, probably, be sufficient to produce dissatisfaction on this ground. If, however, the question were considered sufficiently important, it must be separately dealt with hereafter by Parliament.

Your committee having now reviewed the principal topics which have been brought under their notice by the evidence taken in connection with this inquiry, have agreed to the following recommendations:—

1. That a fire brigade be formed, under the superintendence of the Commissioners of Police, on a scheme to be approved by the Secretary of State for the Home Department, to form part of the general establishment of the Metropolitan Police, and that the acts requiring parishes to maintain engines be repealed.
2. That an account of the expenditure of the new police fire brigade be annually laid before Parliament, together with the general police accounts; in such a manner that the special cost of the brigade may be ascertained.
3. That the area of the new fire brigade arrangements be confined within the limits of the jurisdiction of the Metropolitan Board of Works, with the option to other parishes to be included, if within the area of the Metropolitan Police.

In conclusion, your committee would beg to state, that in their opinion no security can be given by legislation on this important question which would supersede the necessity for individual care by the occupiers of houses against the risk of fire; no precaution can prevent the occurrence of fires, nor can any public measures be enacted which could or should prevent individuals from suffering losses from those acts of carelessness from which fires generally arise; public measures can only be of real service in arresting the progress of fires when they occur, and in preventing the enormous losses which arise from allowing a fire to attain to any considerable dimensions.

Nor can any legislative enactments be made which would probably prevent the necessity of fire brigades being still maintained at the cost of owners of large properties, such as the docks; it may even be reasonably questioned whether the owners of large properties, where goods are peculiarly exposed to risk of fire, ought not to make some special protection for their own property; for if a system of rating were observed on the same plan as at present exists for county police rates, the property in warehouses would hardly be charged a sufficient rate to entitle them to demand more protection than is afforded generally to other property throughout London; if a larger degree of expense was incurred by the new fire brigade especially for their protection, it would be only fair towards other ratepayers that they paid a larger portion of rates so increased for their special protection.

The committee examined Sir Richard Mayne, K.C.B.; Mr. William

Meredith Browne, hon. secretary of the London Fire Brigade; Captain Eyre Massey Shaw, superintendent of the Fire Engine Establishment of London; Mr. Sampson Low, secretary to the Society for the Protection of Life from Fire; Mr. Thomas Henry Sheppy, superintendent of police and of the fire brigade, East and West India Docks; Mr. Richard Randall, superintendent, London Dock Company; Mr. John Clement, head constable of the Docks; Mr. Charles Capper, manager of the Victoria Docks; Mr. George Vulliamy, Architect to the Metropolitan Board of Works; Mr. Walter Newall, principal clerk in the architect's department at the Metropolitan Board of Works; Mr. Thomas Piper, surveyor to the Mercantile Fire Office; Mr. John Drummond, managing director of the Sun; Mr. John Humphrey, coroner for the county of Middlesex; Mr. Thomas Wilson Collet, secretary to the St. Katharine Dock Committee; Mr. W. E. Greenwell, vestry clerk of the parish of Marylebone; Mr. John B. Perks, mill-owner, Rotherhithe; Mr. Richard Ellis, vestry clerk, Hackney; Mr. William Green, engineer to the fire brigade; Major John James Greig, head constable, Liverpool; Mr. Francis Anderson Clint, chairman of the watch committee of the Liverpool Corporation; Mr. Thomas Rose, agent for the Royal Exchange Insurance Company; Mr. Daniel Whittle Harvey, commissioner of the City of London police force; Mr. James Easton, engineer; Mr. James Bryson, superintendent of fire-engines in Glasgow; Mr. John Bowring, clerk of the City of London Union; Mr. William John Hall, wharfinger and merchant; Mr. Francis Nash, wharfinger; Mr. Frederick Hodges, distiller; Mr. William Roberts, fire-engine manufacturer; Mr. Thomas Walker, chemist; Mr. Joseph Quick, engineer; Mr. William Newmarch, secretary to the Globe; Mr. Andrew Nisbet, churchwarden; Mr. S. J. Hyam, vestry clerk; Mr. J. C. Reynolds, surveyor; the Lord Mayor of London; Mr. Samuel Ingold, draper; Mr. G. S. Pedler, vestryman; Mr. John Young, churchwarden; Mr. E. S. Bigg, Law Insurance Office; and Mr. William Baddeley, civil engineer.

INCOME AND PROPERTY TAX.

Report of the Committee appointed to inquire into the present Mode of Assessing and Collecting the Income and Property Tax, and whether any Mode of levying the same, so as to render the Tax more equitable, can be adopted.

THE committee was appointed on the 19th February, and nominated on the 8th March, 1861, as follows:—Mr. Hubbard, the Chancellor of the Exchequer, Mr. Sotheron Estcourt, Mr. Cardwell, Mr. Crawford, Mr. Lowe, Mr. Turner, Mr. Ricardo, Mr. Pollard-Urquhart, Mr. William Heathcote, Mr. Baxter, Sir Stafford Northcote, Sir Frederick Heygate, Mr. Bentinck, and Mr. Cave.

The committee sat nineteen days. They examined Charles Pressly and Mr. Joseph Timm, of the Inland Revenue Office; Mr. William Newmarch, Mr. John Gellibrand Hubbard, M.P., Mr. Richard Till and Mr. John Charles Burgoyne, clerks to the Income Tax Commissioners, Mr. Edward Welsh, inspector of taxes; Mr. Charles Lee, architect and surveyor; Hon. William Napier, manager of Lands Improvement Company; Mr. Charles Ansell,

actuary; Dr. William Farr; Mr. John Clutton, land and house surveyor; Mr. J. E. Coleman, accountant; Mr. John Lavies, Mr. William Fergusson, and Dr. Edward Webster, medical men and physicians; Mr. William Strickland Cookson, solicitor and conveyancer; Mr. John Stuart Mill, Mr. Henry Arthur Hunt, surveyor of land; Mr. John William Knight, assessor and collector of taxes; Mr. John Taylor, mining engineer; and Mr. Daniel Gooch, engineer.

Four draft reports were presented to the committee; one by the chairman, Mr. Hubbard, one by Mr. Lowe, one by Mr. Sotheron Estcourt, and one by Sir Stafford Northcote. It was at first proposed to report the evidence without any observation; but it was decided to take as a basis the draft report of Sir Stafford Northcote, which was amended as follows:—

Your committee have proceeded in this inquiry, and having examined witnesses thereon, have agreed to report the following observations to the House:—The question submitted to your committee was very fully investigated by a select committee appointed in the year 1851, and reappointed in 1852, on the motion of the late Mr. Hume, who laid before it a scheme for the conversion of the present income and property tax into a tax to be adjusted in accordance with—1st, the value of the property; 2nd, the tenure of the owner; 3rd, the age of the owner. The chief officers of the Inland Revenue department, to whom this scheme was at that time communicated, expressed a strong opinion that its administration would be attended with insurmountable difficulties; and your committee see no reason for questioning the correctness of this opinion.

The attention of your committee, on the present occasion, has been mainly directed to another scheme, proposed by their chairman, and explained by him both in written memoranda and in oral evidence, the principal features of which appear to be as follows:—1st. A proposal to make net, instead of gross, income the basis of assessment to the tax; not ascertaining the net income by an account of actual outgoings, but assuming it by a deduction, founded on an average, from certain classes of gross incomes. 2nd. A proposal to divide all incomes into two classes, of which the one should comprise incomes called spontaneous, and the other incomes called industrial; and to tax the former upon the full amount of the net income, and the latter upon two-thirds of that amount. 3rd. A proposal to distinguish in certain cases between the interest of invested capital and the repayment by instalments of the invested capital itself, and to levy the tax upon the interest only, and not upon the repaid portions of capital.

These three proposals are addressed to three complaints which are popularly made against the income-tax in its present form; viz., that it taxes the owners of property in respect of income which they do not get; that it presses too hardly upon skill and industry as compared with property; and that it deals with capital in certain cases as if it were income, and taxes it accordingly. The proposals which your committee have had under consideration are framed upon the assumption that the complaints to which your committee have adverted are well founded, and they are contrived with much ingenuity with a view to meeting them.

Your committee, however, after full consideration, have arrived at the conclusion that the plan proposed by their chairman does not afford a basis for a practicable and equitable readjustment of the income-tax; and they feel so strongly the dangers and ill consequences to be apprehended from an attempt to unsettle the present basis of the tax, without a clear perception

of the mode in which it is to be reconstructed, that they are not prepared to offer to your honourable house any suggestions for its amendment. This tax having now been made the subject of investigation before two committees, and no proposal for its amendment having been found satisfactory, your committee are brought to the conclusion that the objections which are urged against it are objections to its nature and essence rather than to the particular shape which has been given to it.

Your committee also feel that it would be unjust to make any alteration in the present incidence of the income-tax without, at the same time, taking into consideration the pressure of other taxation upon the various interests of the country, some of it imposed by recent legislation, and in one case especially, that of the succession duty, to some extent by way of compensation.

Mr. HUBBARD's draft report was as follows:—Your committee, which was appointed to inquire into the mode of assessing and collecting the income and property tax, and whether any other mode of levying the same, so as to render the tax more equitable can be adopted, have proceeded in this inquiry, and have examined witnesses thereon, and have come to a resolution which they have agreed to report to the House.

The tax which is the subject of their inquiry is called "income and property tax," but it seems to your committee essential to determine in the first instance whether in any, and if in any, then in what sense it can properly be both a property-tax and an income-tax; and if it cannot partake of the character of both, then to decide which it should be.

The probate duty, the legacy duty, and the succession duty are, in the fullest sense of the word, property-taxes. They are levied upon property at given ratios of its value; and as the proportion taken by the tax is often considerably in excess of the entire annual income or interest produced, it must be discharged by the sacrifice of a portion of the property. But these taxes are levied upon property only on change of ownership, and ordinarily at distant intervals.

The "income and property tax" is an annual tax, and in that character should be levied upon the annual products of the capital and industry of the country. It may be assessed upon either property or income as the measure of its incidence, but if kept within certain limits, it may, in either case, be defrayed out of the annual products of the country, and need not encroach on its property or capital.

The double name of the present tax may have grown out of its being not only a property-tax, as levied on the products of property, but also an income-tax, as levied on the income derived from industrial earnings. It taxes products and earnings uniformly, and in so doing it imposes a uniform assessment on unequal matters. It was with the object of removing this inequitable uniformity that Mr. Hume, in 1852, proposed a tax to be adjusted in accordance with—1st, the value of the property; 2ndly, the tenure of the owner; 3rdly, the age of the owner. And this tax he called a "property tax." Yet it is obvious that a tax, even thus carefully measured with reference to property, is, when annual and limited in amount, a very different tax from the duties on legacies and successions; that it is a tax assessed upon property, but paid out of income, and that Mr. Hume's property-tax of one per mille would practically be the equivalent of an income-tax of 6d. in the pound. Whether the tax be assessed on property or on

income, the character of an annual tax requires that it abstain from any partial, irregular, or capricious action upon the corpus of the property or capital of the country.

Whatever may have been the merits of the scheme of taxation proposed by Mr. Hume, your committee are not prepared to differ from the strongly expressed opinions of the chief officers of the Inland Revenue Department in 1852, "that its administration would be attended with insurmountable difficulties."

In the assessment of the "annual value or profits of property," the existing tax acts on the principle of looking only to the products, and of consulting neither the market value of the property, the tenure of the owner, or his age. And your committee assume that this principle will continue to be the rule of annual taxation upon the products of invested property; and that the tax, if reimposed, will be distinctly not a property but an income tax.

The existing tax also charges the "profits or gains of professions, trades, and offices;" and the degree in which, under this head, the earnings of the industrial classes should be taxed is one of the most important portions of the inquiry upon which your committee have been engaged.

Your committee examined, in the first instance Mr. Pressly and Mr. Timm, the chairman and solicitor of the Board of Inland Revenue, who acquainted them with the changes made in the Property and Income Tax Acts since 1852 (the date of the previous inquiry); they then examined, amongst others, Mr. Newmarch, well known as a statistical writer; Dr. Farr, the chief of the statistical department at the Registrar-General's Office; Mr. Ansell, the experienced actuary of the Atlas Assurance Office; and Mr. John Stuart Mill. The chairman of the committee was personally examined upon the nature of a plan of adjustment which he had submitted to the committee. The legal profession, represented by Mr. Cookson, the president of the Incorporated Law Society, and the medical profession, represented by Mr. Lavies, Mr. Fergusson, and Dr. Webster, appeared before the committee to support their petitions for relief. Evidence was also taken as to the outgoings upon real property, and as to the assessment of mining property.

DEFECTS OF THE PRESENT INCOME AND PROPERTY TAX ACTS.

Of the defects which are charged against the existing Act, the following are the most important:—1. Capital given as the consideration for annuities terminable by lapse of years or lapse of life is taxed in the annuity through which it is being repaid with interest. 2. Capital, in the course of realization through the working of mines, is taxed in the assessment of the entire value of their produce. 3. The portion of land-rent applied to the maintenance of the property in insurance and repairs is taxed, although not available as income. 4. The portion of house-rent applied to the maintenance of the property in insurance and repairs is taxed, although not available as income. 5. Rent paid in the shape of fines is assessed in the hands of the lessor, although the full annual value of the property may have been already taxed in the hands of the lessee or tenant. 6. Industrial earnings are taxed to their full extent, although their dependence on the life and efficiency of those whose labour is indispensable to their production requires that a considerable portion be annually saved; such portion when invested as capital, being again taxed in its subsequent products.

PLAN OF ADJUSTMENT.

The plan of adjustment submitted to the committee by the chairman, divides into two classes the whole of the subjects of taxation now included under Schedules A., B., C., D., E. The first class includes all incomes derived from invested property. The second class includes industrial incomes. Of the defects complained of, five refer to incomes of the first class; they shall be separately noticed in the order in which they stand.

1. *Assessment of Terminable Annuities.*—Among the various modes of contracting loans, annuities terminable with years or life have been a medium often convenient both to borrower and lender. The State has at various times borrowed largely upon terminable annuities, and although a considerable portion of the annuities for years expired in 1860, the State is now owing about 6,000,000*l.* in annuities terminable with years, amounting to 995,000*l.*, and about 10,000,000*l.* in life annuities, amounting to 1,053,000*l.*

Annuities both for lives and years have been largely dealt in by private persons and companies; and both touching these and Government annuities, the law now requires that the income-tax be levied upon each payment of the annuity, comprising as it does, both capital repaid and interest upon the capital unpaid.

In raising a "Life Annuity," one party, the grantee, advances a sum of money, and the other party, the grantor, covenants to pay an annual sum, which comprises a portion of the capital (to be thus gradually repaid), with interest on the residue remaining from year to year unpaid. The elements of computation which, with a given capital as purchase-money, fix the amount of the annuity, are the age of the life and the rate of interest.

In raising an "Annuity for a Term of Years," the elements of computation which with a given capital as purchase-money fix the amount of the annuity are the number of years and the rate of interest; and the grantor covenants to pay the annuity to the grantee in return for the capital advanced.

These terminable annuities (and whether they be granted by the Government or by private capitalists is immaterial) involve at each instalment a repayment of capital; and to ascertain the amount of that capital, and what, consequently, is the amount of interest, nothing is requisite but the knowledge of the rate of interest, and of the unexpired life, or of the term of years, as the case may be.

The imposition of income-tax upon a terminable annuity has, therefore, the effect of abstracting from the creditor or grantee a sum equal to the percentage of the rate upon the entire debt. Thus, if a tax of 9*d.* in the pound be continuously levied upon the life annuities now payable by the Government, no less a sum than 375,000*l.* would be retained by them out of the 10,000,000*l.* which their obligation amounts to. Or if the State borrow 10,000,000*l.* for the fortifications of the country upon terminable annuities, and in the next year impose an income-tax of 9*d.* in the pound to operate during the term of the annuities, it will repay, not the 10,000,000*l.* it borrowed, but only 9,625,000*l.*

Where the borrower or grantor of the annuity is a private person or company, he retains for his own advantage the tax which the law, as now administered, requires him to abstract from the principal monies he is repaying. There is no reason for supposing that it was the intention of the

original framers of the income-tax to permit the State to repudiate any portion of its debt, or to restrain individuals from paying theirs in full. The memorial of the insurance companies in 1853, well remarked that the words in which the Legislature grant to the Crown a tax "upon all the profits arising from annuities and dividends," cannot be construed as comprising the capital repaid, and the grievance has probably arisen from the indiscriminating use of the word annuity. The remedy for this defective administration of the Act is to follow out the course already taken by the Legislature.

In 1846 Parliament voted an advance of 3,000,000*l.*, to be lent to the landowners of Great Britain, at an interest of 3 per cent., repayable in twenty-two years. The loan thus took the shape of a terminable annuity or rent-charge of 65*l.* for every 1,000*l.* lent. The 60th section of the 5th and 6th Vict., "empowered landlords to deduct and retain the income-tax out of every rent-charge or annuity for which their land was liable;" but in 1853, the Legislature provided (16 and 17 Vict. c. 34, sec. 42), "That whereas certain advances of public money have been made for the improvement of lands by way of loan," "and the repayment thereof has been secured by a rent-charge," "by which the principal sums advanced will eventually be repaid with interest thereon, and it is just that provision should be made for deducting and allowing the duty charged by this Act in proportion to such interest, on the payment of such rent-charge; it shall be lawful for any person paying any such rent-charge from time to time to deduct and retain thereout in respect of the duty chargeable under this Act, one-third part of the sum which the rate of such duty, computed on such rent-charge, will amount to, and no more."

It only remains that the just provision made in 1853 for the protection of the State, as a creditor, should now be extended to its own obligations as a debtor, and to the obligation of its subjects relatively to one another.

It might be questioned whether those who have lent their capital on terminable annuities at a time when an income-tax existed, can rightfully ask to have their capital released from taxation; but the answer is obvious:—"The income-tax has never been imposed except as a transient tax, and the annuitant is, therefore, free to demand protection for his property." Here, however, the precedent of 1853 is again conclusive. The State became the annuitant of the landowners of Great Britain in 1846. An income-tax then existed, but in 1853, on the re-enactment of the tax, the State expressly restrained the grantors of its annuities from deducting the duty upon the "principal sums advanced."

As to the mode of carrying out the discrimination of capital and interest in a terminable annuity, your committee recommend that the tables appended to the Succession Duty Act be the basis on which the taxable interest on an annuity for life or years shall be founded, in cases where positive material for computation is not patent in the contract for the annuity, and that tables thus prepared be appointed as the legal means of adjusting for taxation either public or private terminable annuities.

The proportion of one-third of annual interest in the land annuities for 1846, assumed by the clause of 1853, must now be maintained until they expire; for the landowner having been confined to a deduction of the tax upon one-third as interest, when the interest exceeded that proportion, is entitled to continue it now that the interest will be below one-third, in order that he may not forfeit the average amount of deduction.

The proportion of interest varies from 48*l.* out of each 100*l.* of the annuity in the first year to 3*l.* in the last of the term of twenty-two years, but on the aggregate the interest is represented with a tolerable approximation to justice in the proportion of one-third, as fixed by the 42nd section of the Act.

2. *Mines and Mining Adventures.*—Under the existing law, mineral rents and royalties accruing to the owner, and the profits derived from working the mineral, are together assessed under Schedule A. on the amount of the produce or value, irrespectively of the return which either the mine owner or the mine worker would make under the head of "profits." The tax upon the assumed value of the mineral is charged to the persons working the mine, without any allowance for the exhaustibility of the property, or of the outlay in plant, machinery, &c., which is the indispensable preliminary to raising the mineral. Mines are charged where situate, upon the profits of an average of five years.

Both the owners and the workers of mines are seriously aggrieved under this administration of the law. The mine owner is virtually taxed upon the sale of his property. The rents or royalties derived from mines and quarries are not perpetual, like rents of land; they last only as long as the mineral; when that is exhausted, the royalty ceases, and the equitable taxation of mineral rents requires that an abatement be made from their amount equivalent to the annual depreciation of the property through the exhaustion of the mineral. Earthy minerals, viz. coal, ironstone, and slate, are of a less precarious and uncertain character. Metallic minerals, viz. tin, copper, lead, and iron ore are of a more uncertain character. Mr. John Taylor, a mining engineer of considerable experience, stated, that as compared with the present assessment of minerals, an abatement of 10 per cent. upon the royalties of all mines, would be acceptable; but he explained that a more accurate appreciation of the nature of the several mines would not be satisfied without a distinct classification of the metallic minerals, the royalties of which would require an allowance of not less than 20 per cent. to compensate exhaustion, while an abatement of 10 per cent. might fairly compensate the exhaustion of earthy minerals. The mode of assessing the profits of mining adventures should, in the opinion of your committee, be altogether changed. The working of a mine should be treated like a manufacture or a trade, and the profits of the business be ascertained by the returns of the parties interested. When the adventure is in the hands of a company it is the duty of the managers to estimate the reserve adequate to the replacement of the capital sunk in ground works, machinery, and plant, which should every year be made from the earnings of the company prior to a declaration of profits and dividend. They should be at liberty to redistribute their capital among the shareholders either year by year, or at the close of the adventure, undiminished by the income-tax; but their true profits would be most conveniently taxed in their appropriation as dividends.

When mining adventures are carried on by private persons or partnerships, the profits returned by them for assessment should be treated, like other trade returns, under Schedule (D).

When the mineral is worked for the profit of the mine-owner, he should be assessed, firstly, in respect of the value it would yield in royalty; and, secondly, in respect of the industrial profits of the adventure.

3. *Assessment of Land Rents.*—The proportion of rent which, upon an average of years, is expended for the maintenance of dwellings, buildings,

and fences, connected with landed property, has been variously valued by the surveyors called before your committee, at 6, 8, and 10 per cent. Until such outgoings have been defrayed, the landowner cannot be said to have a net rent available for his expenditure, and your committee recommend that upon the rent of all lands (requiring building reparation), an abatement be made of one-twelfth part ($8\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.) prior to assessment.

4. *Assessment of House Rents.*—The assessment of houses is attended with more injustice than that of land, for not only are the outgoings in insurance and repair proportionally heavier, but the irregularity with which the law is itself administered involves at times serious loss to the house-owner.

The maintenance of house property, in its full value, implies insurance against fire, the annual repair, and the ultimate renewal of the fabric when decayed by age; and the proportion of rent absorbed by these outgoings is estimated by Mr. C. Lee, a surveyor of lengthened experience, at an average of 15 per cent. upon house property of all ages and all descriptions. His estimate was, in the main, concurred in by Mr. Vigers, while Mr. Clutton rated the outgoings at $17\frac{1}{2}$ per cent., and Mr. Hunt at 20 per cent.

In corroboration, both of the policy and of the amount of the proposed allowance for outgoings, Mr. Lee notices that in assessments of house property for the poor-rate, he has habitually deducted 15 per cent., and that in every case of rating brought judicially before the Court of Queen's Bench, allowances have been made for these purposes. Apart, however, from the taxation on outgoings, a further injustice is sometimes inflicted by charging income-tax on the amount of rates and taxes paid by the landlord for houses let by the year, or for shorter terms; but this defect of administration can easily be remedied by providing the assessors and surveyors with more definite instructions.

Your committee recommend that, prior to the assessment of houses, an abatement be made of one-sixth part for outgoings, from the assessable value.

5. *Assessment of Fines.*—A large portion of the property of ecclesiastical and collegiate bodies, and of some individuals, consists of property let on lease, at a small reserved rent, and renewable at the expiry of a life or term of years, upon payment of a fine.

In the payment of this fine the tenant advances the rent of future years, and the aggregate of the fines and reserved rents, divided over the term of renewal, represents the average income derived from the property by the lessors. Income-tax is now levied upon the full annual value of the property in the hands of the tenant, and it is also levied on the fines received by the lessors, so that the State taxes a large portion of the "profits" of the property twice over. The assessment of the fines in the hands of the lessors should, in the opinion of your committee, be discontinued, and the tenant who now recoups what he pays as income-tax on the full annual value, only partially upon the small reserved rent, will then either deduct income-tax upon the fine he pays to the lessor, if it be a fine certain, or regulate the optional fine he agrees to pay by the consideration of the additional burthen of taxation he has to bear.

6. *Assessment of Industrial Incomes.*—The defects of the existing law, which have been thus far alluded to, are all connected with incomes derived from invested property, and the remedies suggested by the evidence, are directed to the recovery of that which is the proper subject of taxation, viz., the net income available for expenditure. Adam Smith's axiom,

[377]

"The subjects of every State ought to contribute towards the support of the Government as nearly as possible in proportion to their respective abilities; that is, in proportion to the revenue which they respectively enjoy under the protection of the State," may be taken as a safe guiding principle; but as it is obviously beyond the power of legislation to deal with individuals, it must be satisfied to deal with classes, and as even classes are severally subject to great variety of circumstance, they must, for the purpose of legislation, be viewed, not in their exceptional and extreme cases, but in their general character.

In the second class of the plan submitted to the committee are ranked as "industrial incomes," those (now assessed under Schedules B., D., and E.), of which the distinctive features are, that they are the earnings of skill and intelligence combined with the use of capital in varying degrees, but dependent for their continuance on the life, health, and efficiency of their owners. That receipts of this character are in a very different degree from the products of invested property available for expenditure, and, consequently, taxable, is the conclusion to which the evidence submitted to your committee leads.

The opinions of several eminent statesmen of the present day, cited by Mr. Newmarch, upon the inequalities and injustice of the present tax upon trades and professions, may be summed up in the words reported as used by Mr. Gladstone on the 12th May, 1853: "I did not contest the opinion commonly entertained, that intelligence and skill were too hardly pressed upon as compared with property."

That this opinion is widely and firmly entertained by those who feel aggrieved, your committee can have no doubt. The witnesses representing the medical profession insist upon the hardship of "professional men, gaining their livelihood from day to day by the exercise of their brains, and in accordance with the state of their health, being taxed like those who have no such anxiety regarding their means of livelihood;" and Mr. Cookson, speaking as "President of the Incorporated Law Society," stated the feeling of the members of that society to be "a strong sense of injustice in the produce of their hands and brains being rated to the income-tax at the same rate as incomes derived from land and capital and money in the funds."

In the opinion of your committee, these assertions and admissions of the unequal pressure of the tax urgently require the consideration of the best means of relieving it.

The proposition submitted to your committee is, "that industrial profits or earnings shall, previous to assessment, be entitled to an abatement of one-third of their amount."

The grounds alleged for this proposition may be briefly stated thus:—*a.* Savings should not be taxed; *b.* The savings effected out of incomes derived from invested property (or, as they are briefly called, spontaneous incomes) are estimated at one-tenth; *c.* The savings effected out of industrial incomes are estimated at four-tenths; *d.* The amounts which would be assessed under these two classes being nearly equal, the adjustment is simplified by striking off one-tenth on either side, and then reducing by three-tenths, or one-third, the assessable amount of industrial incomes.

This estimate of the relative savings of the two classes is avowedly an arbitrary one, but the concession which it involves agrees with the average

result of the scientific computations of Dr. Farr, and receives the approval of Mr. John Stuart Mill.

On the other hand, as a measure of relief, a concession of one-third would be willingly accepted by the legal and medical professions.

Your committee are aware, that to warrant this proposed concession, the distinction between the first and second class should be real, and be one not only justifying an essential difference of treatment, but capable of being defined by a distinct line of legal demarcation. In the first class they find incomes which accrue to the owner independently of his own labour, which are the result of invested capital, and are assessable at the source, so that before they reach the owners, these incomes are for the most part taxed: rents in the hands of the tenant, interest in the hands of the borrowers, and dividends in the hands of the companies who distribute them.

In the second class are comprised all "industrial incomes," whether trading, or manufacturing, professional, or stipendiary. Their characteristics are, that they are dependent on the labour of their owners, and they are assessable for the most part only through the concurrence and self-assessment of the tax payer.

In one sense all incomes are dependent upon labour; neither rents, interest of money, dividends of companies, nor dividends in the funds, can accrue without the labour of those who till the land, employ the money, work for the company, or out of their industry provide the revenue to pay the public dividends; but "industrial incomes" are distinguishable from those which have been called "spontaneous," in this; the labour of the owners of the latter class of incomes is not requisite for their production. They are free to employ their talents, their labour, or their time in any way they please; the income derived from the investment of their capital needs not their assistance.

"Trading companies" and trading partnerships in the same line of business may, at first sight, appear scarcely distinguishable from each other; but there are essential differences in their action, and in the taxable results.

In a trading company the labour of the clerks, managers, and directors is all paid for; reserves are made for depreciation, casualties, or exhaustion, and the dividends represent the net return for the capital invested by the shareholder.

In a private partnership the management and supervision are carried on by the partners in the firm; some may provide the capital, some the supervision, but the profits combine the reward for the management and the returns for the capital; they are industrial profits divisible amongst the partners. The partners contributing capital only, are called sleeping partners, and there may be no important difference, so far as their personal fortunes are concerned, between them and shareholders of a public company; but the shareholders of a company may always secure a limited liability, which partners in a private firm cannot. Practically, the tax collector knows nothing of sleeping partners; it is the entity of the partnership, the firm, which he assesses; and whatever the proportions in which capital and labour are contributed, the partnership is entitled to the character and privileges of an industrial pursuit.

Professions have been by some authorities (and your committee may specify Dr. Farr and Mr. John Stuart Mill) considered as requiring a separate treatment, if it be possible to make a practical separation.

"Professional men," it has been remarked, have "little or no visible capital contributing to their profits, which are almost exclusively the result of their personal exertions, and they should be assessed upon a more indulgent scale than applies to the combined gains of capital and labour in trading profits." Undoubtedly, the elements of the trading and professional profits are not identical; but your committee do not believe that it would be possible either to distinguish professions from trades, or to obtain from traders the amounts of their capital in trade, which would be requisite for the separate assessment of the annual value of their capital, and of the gains created by their labour apart from capital. It may be doubted indeed whether, looking to the proportion of savings as the plea for exemption, the claim of traders would not be even larger than that of professional men. In the event of a discrimination between trading and professional profits being found impracticable, Mr. Mill expressed as his deliberate opinion, that the proposal of uniting them in the same measure of relief should be adopted.

Electing as his guide the principle of exempting savings from taxation, Mr. Mill propounds as the theory of a perfectly just income-tax, that wanting evidence of the amount of actual savings, the circumstances of each individual as influencing his power and disposition to save should be considered; and that a life income should be taxed partially only, and in proportion as the tenure taken in conjunction with other circumstances capable of being defined, should indicate a greater or a lesser obligation to save. On the one hand, Mr. Mill's theory requires the taxation of capital, when sunk in life annuities and destined to be consumed, and on the other it requires the reimbursement of the tax levied upon rents, or dividends, to whatever extent the wealth or parsimony of their owners may have induced them to save. In fact, the perfection of Mr. Mill's theory of an income-tax depends upon the degree in which it approximates to a tax upon expenditure.

Premising his preference for a system which should carry out his theory of a perfect tax, Mr. Mill expresses his decided and clear opinion, that if that theory be found impracticable, industrial incomes should receive the concession to which they are entitled by the peculiar force of their claims.

Dr. Farr re-affirms his confidence in the equity of a tax as proposed by Mr. Hume to be assessed on property, according to the value of the property, the tenures, and the age of the owner. But it is no part of Dr. Farr's theory to release from taxation in virtue of its tenure, any portions of the net income derived either from rents or interest of money. He would in some cases of tenure, short of the fee, charge the tenant only upon the value of his limited tenure, but he would, in every such case, charge the residue of the tax upon the reversioner, so that the exchequer would always receive the full tax upon the whole of the net income of the country.

Retaining his preference for a capitalization scheme, Dr. Farr concurs generally in the principles of the plan under the consideration of the committee, and would be glad to see it substituted for the present income-tax, as much more conformable to justice, although not adjusting taxation to each individual case as proposed by the capitalization scheme.

Apart from the administrative difficulties of a capitalization scheme, your committee are not disposed to believe that the principle of adjusting an income-tax with reference, first, to the value of the property which pro-

duces it; second, to the tenure on which it is held; and, third, to the age of the owner, is essential to the construction of an equitable income-tax, although for the equitable assessment of a property-tax these considerations may be expedient. To adjust the tax upon every income by yearly reference to the age of the owner must, if the tax be continuous, have the effect of inconveniently varying its amount without affecting the average of the burthen during the period of its incidence.

To divide the tax between the life tenant and the reversioner of an income, with the admitted necessity of making the life tenant advance to the State the portion due from an unknown, or uncertain, or an incapable reversioner, would, in the great majority of cases, involve the life tenant in a complicated and embarrassing system of indebtedness to his predecessors, and of claims upon his successors, without affording him any alleviation of his fiscal burthen.

To measure the tax upon income by the value of the property which produces it, is open to less objection than either of the preceding propositions; but it would be attended with so much uncertainty in the recurring valuations, with such temptation to undervalue on the part of the tax-payer, and with such conflict of opinion between him and the assessor, that the scientific precision which it aims at would be, in the opinion of your committee, too dearly bought.

Nor is it the opinion of your committee that the theory enunciated by Mr. Mill (which would assimilate the action of the income-tax to that of a tax on individual expenditure) is the most eligible. They admit the recommendations possessed by indirect taxation, if levied upon articles of general consumption. The tax is, under such circumstances, paid almost unconsciously, and therefore without repugnance; it is paid by individuals in proportion to the consumption of which they defray the cost, either directly in their own families, or indirectly through the labour they employ; some may spend more, some may spend less than they can afford, but the variations are the result of individual will, and the general result of indirect taxation is to "tax men according to their means, defined and limited by their expenditure."

Indirect taxation, while it operates with perfect fairness upon individuals, has, however, when imposed upon articles of general consumption, the demerit of obstructing the industry and commerce of the country, and requires, therefore, to be discreetly used; but even its peculiar merit of taxing people according to their expenditure, is not necessarily a merit when applied to direct taxation. That the field of incidence (the amount of general expenditure) should be the same for direct and indirect taxation may be admitted, consistently with the opinion that the income-tax may beneficially neglect in separate cases the consideration of what a man does spend for the assessment of what a man has to spend, and that as contrasted in that respect with the customs and excise, it may press more leniently on inadequate incomes, and more heavily on those which are superabundant.

Upon these considerations, your committee are of opinion that the unequal pressure of the present tax on skill and intelligence may fairly be redressed by a diminished assessment of one-third in the amount of industrial incomes, and that such an adjustment would in no degree require or involve any deviation from the existing practice of assessing rents, dividends, and interest, irrespectively of their tenure.

The 54th sec. of the 16 and 17 Vict. c. 34, provides for an abatement not

exceeding one-sixth of his assessment to any person who shall have paid so much as annual premium on a life assurance; this section obviously admits that savings invested in a life assurance are not a part of a man's income which is fairly taxable. But it appears to your committee that, consistently with this admission, savings in any form are equally entitled to be exempt from taxation, and that the application of this principle to a class, instead of to individuals, sanctions a general mitigation of the tax to the class which may show, in the additional magnitude of its savings, its title to this concession. In its present form this intended indulgence to savings is nearly inoperative. Mr. Till informed the committee that the benefit which the Legislature intended to bestow, does not meet the case of a very large class of tax-payers, who, as clerks, are rated on salaries of 100*l.* and upwards. Of 1,263 clerks in public companies, with salaries between 100*l.* and 150*l.* a year, only thirty-two had claimed relief on account of insurance, and of 3,790 persons rated at above 150*l.*, only 151 had claimed relief on the same plea.

The concession which has been suggested to industrial incomes is already given, and, under possible circumstances, even exceeded, when profits are returned in annual amounts widely varying from one another. The 133rd section of the Act 5 and 6 Vict. c. 35, provides, that any person having been assessed upon the average of three years, shall pay for the fourth year upon no higher amount than he shall make in that year. The result of this provision is, as illustrated by the example given in evidence by Mr. Pressly, that a trader may make 400*l.* a year upon an average of years, and pay upon only 249*l.*, a reduction of three-eighths of the duty on which he would be assessed if his profits were uniformly 400*l.* a year. Under the extreme supposition of a trader making alternately profit and no profit, his assessment would be reduced to one-half of his actual gains. Effectively the law says to the trader in the case cited, "Make your profits unequally, and you shall be assessed upon five-eighths only of your profits."

The origin of this section may easily be surmised. At the first imposition of the tax, the average of three preceding years constitute a fair subject for assessment; but as the fourth year is really the year taxed, provision is made that it be not taxed in excess of its own gains. In this view, and for this occasion, the section acts fairly to the trader who makes less than his previous average, but unfairly to the exchequer in the case of the trader who makes more than his previous average, and who is not asked to pay upon the excess. Any motive, however, which may have recommended this section at the first imposition of an ephemeral tax becomes inapplicable when the tax is continuous; the section then becomes a source of detriment to the exchequer, while its indulgence is extended, not to the whole of the industrial classes assessed under Schedule D., but to a portion only. Professional and salaried men, whose earnings are uniform and fixed, derive no advantage from this section, and of traders, those only gain by it who are already gainers, by having made in one year, by anticipation, more than their average profits:—A., in 1861, makes 1,000*l.*, and pays 37*l.* 10*s.*; in 1862 he makes 1,000*l.*, and pays 37*l.* 10*s.*; and, in 1863, he makes 1,000*l.*, and pays 37*l.* 10*s.* B. made, in 1858, 1,000*l.*; in 1859, 1,000*l.*; and, in 1860, nil. B. makes, in 1861, 1,000*l.*, and pays 37*l.* 10*s.*; in 1862, 2,000*l.*, and pays 37*l.* 10*s.*; and, in 1863, nil, and pays nil; but B., in 1863, so far from being less able than A. to pay income-tax on his average profits, is better able; he makes in 1862 the profits of 1863, and the interest, at 5 per cent.

upon the 1,000*l.* untaxed of the profits of 1862, enables him to pay the tax of 1863 without any sacrifice, and to be, even then, better off than A., by 12*l.* 10*s.*, yet the 133rd section exempts him altogether.

The advantages granted by this section are, even among traders, available almost entirely for those who least need them; for those whose large capital and extensive engagements, particularly in foreign trade, enable them to bear, in fluctuating yearly profits, the results of wide variations of price in their articles of commerce. From a different cause, some important domestic manufactures may benefit by this section. It is notorious that London brewers, of the first class, endeavour to avoid varying the prices of their porter, lest they should interfere with its consumption. When malt and hops are dear, they brew at a diminished gain; sometimes at a loss; but they recover their average profits by the additional gain realized when malt and hops are cheap. A brewer, whose profits varied in the proportions stated by Mr. Pressly (4,311), might pay income-tax on 25,000*l.* a year, while he actually realized 40,000*l.*

Your committee are of opinion, that it would be desirable to abolish the partial and variable remissions effected in virtue of the 133rd section, concurrently with the adoption of a general but limited concession.

ASSESSMENT OF ECCLESIASTICAL TENURES.

The existing law, in its assessment of rents, rent-charges, and funded endowments takes no cognizance either of the tenure or of the profession of the owner; those held by the clergy are assessed equally with those held by laymen. And yet the clergy are, as a profession, obviously entitled to share in any general concession to industrial incomes. So far as they derive their emoluments from fees and pew rents, which became the subject of a "return under Schedule D.," the abatement granted to professions generally would extend to them; but as regards the rents, rent-charges, or funded endowments of the benefices they hold, it would appear more consistent with the true character of these properties that they should be taxed as they now are, irrespective of their application or ownership, and that the clergy should receive a distinct concession in the tax on the value of the labour of the cure attached to the benefice. The average value of the ecclesiastical benefices of England and Wales is under 300*l.*, so that a general allowance of 100*l.* unassessed upon every benefice with cure of souls attached, would yield an average relief rather higher than an abatement of one-third. This allowance would be in harmony with the rule which, in the valuation of ecclesiastical patronage, assumes 100*l.* as an outgoing in the cost of a curate's stipend, and values the residue of the revenue as the property to be purchased.

ASSESSMENT OF FARMS.

Admitting that the assessment of the profits acquired by the occupation of land is based upon an extremely loose and arbitrary estimate, and that it must operate with considerable inequality, yet it does not appear to your committee that farmers generally possess, in records of their transactions, the materials for definite and accurate returns; they have therefore only to suggest that the proportion of the annual value assessed in respect of the occupation, be adjusted to the concession proposed for industrial incomes generally.

ASSESSMENT OF SALARIES AND PENSIONS.

Under Schedule E. is now assessed every public office or employment of profit, and every pension and stipend payable out of the public revenue, or by certain corporations.

This enumeration comprises not only stipends and salaries, and superannuation allowances (sometimes called pensions), all of which being the consideration for actual service either present or past, must be considered as industrial earnings; but it also contains pensions and annuities, in some cases hereditary, in others grants to the present owners, as acts of grace and favour. This last class is obviously not entitled to the same consideration as the former; it is of trifling amount, and the Executive may fairly be trusted to determine which of the pensions and annuities now charged upon the Consolidated Fund are entitled to a concession on their assessment.

It is the opinion of your committee that salaries, stipends, and superannuation allowances, and all offices of profit, involving substantial personal service, should share the concession proposed for industrial incomes, of one-third in their assessable amount.

EXEMPTION OF INCOMES DERIVED FROM REALIZED PROPERTY.

All interest down to 50s. half yearly, and all rents, are now assessed, but the tax levied is returned wholly in the event of the owner proving that his income is under 100*l.*, or partly if his income be shown not to exceed 150*l.* The cost and labour of entertaining the claims for repayment of the tax levied on these small properties, and the insufficiency of the evidence on which the tax is refunded, if it be so decided, are strongly pressed upon your committee by the official witnesses (confirming in this respect the universal testimony to the same effect given in 1852), together with their opinion that the only effectual remedy would be to remove the power of exemption. It is stated, however, that the difficulty of dealing with these claims for repayment has comparatively diminished, owing to a greater familiarity with the several cases, and to the greater experience of the officials.

Your committee can find no principle of general acceptance which would exempt from taxation any property income, however small. It is not, however, always practicable to direct fiscal legislation by a strictly scientific rule, and it is the more difficult to do so when a contrary policy has long prevailed. Your committee do not venture, therefore, to suggest any variation from the practice under which persons in receipt of less than 100*l.* a year are entitled to the recovery of the tax levied on that portion of their income which is derived from realized property.

EXEMPTION OF SMALL INDUSTRIAL INCOMES.

The same graduated assessment is at present applied to incomes of both kinds, but the distinct character of industrial earnings demands for them a separate consideration.

The administrative objections to a remission of taxation on small incomes derived from realized property do not apply to these. It is a question of forbearance; and the cost of collecting the tax on small salaries and trade profits of itself constitutes a limit which it would be undesirable to pass. Again, the inexpediency of taxing the wages of unskilled labour is obvious; they are generally the equivalent of the cost of maintenance, and to tax

them would be virtually to tax the capital which employs the labour, and which must increase the wages of labour if a portion be abstracted by taxation. The amount which may be exempt under this consideration has been variously estimated between 60% and 100%; but there appears a general acquiescence in the present limit of 100% as the commencement of taxation.

In substitution, however, for the existing plan of levying 6d. upon the entire income of 100% and upwards to 149% 19s., and 9d. upon the entire incomes of 150% and upwards, it is suggested that 60% be deducted from the assessable amount of industrial incomes of 100%, and not exceeding 180%, and that one-third be deducted from the assessable amount of all industrial incomes of 180% and upwards.

This arrangement, it has been shown, would diminish materially the temptation to a fraudulent understatement of incomes just above 100%, and altogether remove the inducement to understate incomes just above 150%.

EFFECT OF PROPOSED ADJUSTMENT UPON THE REVENUE AND UPON TAX-PAYERS.

A statement was presented by Mr. Pressly, estimating at nearly 2,000,000% the amount of which the proposed adjustment would deprive the public revenue. This statement, which, if accurate, would express the amount of injustice actually inflicted, makes, however, no allowance for the compensation to be derived from a diminution of the frauds exercised under Schedule D., both generally and specially, to avoid the incidence of the tax at the point of 100%, and again at the point of 150%. Neither does it take account of the proportion of trade savings already excepted from assessment by the 133rd section. To what extent the notorious understatement of profits may be attributable to the sense of injustice actuating the tax-payer to self-redress, and how far a consciousness of fair treatment will induce a more scrupulous self-assessment, must remain a matter of opinion. An improved form of returns, in the use of which the trader would abate his profits for assessment, in accordance with the provision of the law, cannot fail, however, to exercise a favourable influence in promoting accuracy. Neither can the sacrifices now entailed upon the exchequer by the 133rd section be forgotten in estimating a comparative future produce of an amended tax. Mr. Till speaks of there being as many as 400 appeals under that section before the commissioners of the city of London.

In the opinion of your committee it is not, however, necessary for the purpose of their inquiry, to ascertain the amount which would be withheld from the exchequer by the various concessions required to equalize the operation of an uniform rate. The exchequer revenue is the public revenue, and any deficit arising from the redress of particular grievances must be compensated by a general increase in the rate levied upon the public at large. Your committee have not been unmindful that in making concessions to one class of incomes out of several, or in making larger concessions to one class than to another, a necessity is created (if the same revenue is required from the tax) to increase the rate generally, and, therefore, add to its pressure on the class which receives either the smaller concession or none. But even if the amount of concession could be spared out of the revenue, and no increase of the rate were needful, it would still be true that an additional relative pressure would be laid on the class not included in the concession.

But these results are inseparable from the redress of any injustice, and

from the removal of any inequality. If A, E, I, O, and U are equally weighted, and 20 lbs. are taken off A, 15 lbs. off E, 10 lbs. off I, and 5 lbs. off O, and the burden so taken off is then redistributed equally, U will carry 10 lbs. more than he did before, and O 5 lbs. more, while A will carry 10 lbs. less and E 5 lbs. less. It would be no sufficient answer to a proposal to adjust their unequal burdens to point out that O and U will suffer by the adjustment. The proposed adjustment has for its object, not to favour one class at the expense of another, but to remedy every inequality affecting either, and it will be seen that the principle of the revision requires amendments in the assessment of every one of the existing schedules.

ASSESSMENT OF FOREIGN PROPERTY.

Touching the assessment of rents, profit, and interest derived from foreign property and foreign securities, your committee have not received any decided evidence. The origin of income of this description obviously distinguishes it from income accruing and being expended under the protection of the same Government. Income from foreign property of all kinds is subject to taxation in its own locality; and it is not unfrequently taxed by the Government under whose protection it is created, while it is taxed again by the Government under whose protection it is expended. But without a larger consideration of its peculiar claims to consideration than they have been able to give to them, your committee are not prepared to recommend any change in the assessment of incomes derived from foreign property.

ASSESSMENT AND COLLECTION.

Evidence was given by Mr. Pressly and by Mr. Welsh upon various interesting questions connected with the general administration of the tax. Mr. Pressly stated, as his opinion, "That the present mode of remunerating the assessors and collectors by a poundage was unsatisfactory; that the poundage system sprung out of the union of the collection of the assessed and property taxes in the hands of the local authorities; that the assumption of the collection of these taxes by the executive Government was desirable, and that salaries should then be substituted for a remuneration by poundage." Mr. Welsh considers that the administration of the tax in London, or in any large city, can never be managed properly unless a Government commissioner be appointed; and he concurs in Mr. Pressly's opinion, that the Government should appoint the assessors and collectors. He also thinks that it would be desirable to require employers to collect the tax from their clerks and servants. Your committee were unable to prolong their inquiry sufficiently to justify them in offering any opinion on these questions or on that of the quarterly collection.

ADMINISTRATIVE PRACTICABILITY OF THE PROPOSED PLAN OF ADJUSTMENT.

Mr. Pressly, when asked whether the plan laid down before the committee by the chairman was liable to the objection of impracticability, which he had urged against the adoption of Mr. Hume's scheme in 1852, and whether he could point out any part which could not be carried out, replied, "that he feared difficulties would arise in the assessment of private terminable annuities;" and that, "with regard to the tax upon the interest of borrowed money, the public would never put down in their return the amount

of borrowed capital which would be necessary if interest on borrowed capital were to pay one rate and profits of trade another. There was no other part that he considered to be a difficulty. All the rest could be carried out if it were considered expedient to do so."

At a subsequent examination, Mr. Pressly's attention was called to the fact, that Mr. Ansell, an actuary of great reputation and experience, on having a case of annuity, selected for its difficulty, submitted to him, was of opinion that it was a case which could not affect the revenue; that it was a question as between the parties concerned, and that he, as an actuary, saw no difficulty in discriminating between the interest which would properly be taxed and the capital which was not to be taxed. Mr. Pressly replied as follows:—"There is no difficulty where a repayment is not required; where you tax everything at its first source, and no repayment is required, there is not the slightest difficulty whatever. My evidence was entirely upon the point of necessity; that it would require some repayment; the moment you do away with the repayment, the whole of my objection falls to the ground."

Mr. Pressly was also reminded of his former apprehensions with regard to the difficulty of getting returns of borrowed capital, and was then asked "At that time the paper now presented to you was not framed; it was put in evidence by Mr. Welsh, and was framed for the purpose of meeting the difficulty you had suggested; looking at that paper, and seeing that only one rate is to be charged, and that it is not necessary to make a separate disclosure of interest upon borrowed capital, that removes, does it not, the difficulty which you apprehend upon that score?" Mr. Pressly replied, "Undoubtedly."

Mr. Pressly subsequently remarked, as to the proposed form, "It could not be open to the objection which I raised upon the former occasion of disclosing the amount of borrowed capital,"—"I do not see any other objection myself to it."

Your committee conclude, therefore, that the only two difficulties apprehended by the chief officer of the Inland Revenue being, by his own admission, disposed of, there is, in the plan submitted to them, nothing which cannot be carried out if it be considered expedient to do so.

CONCLUDING RECOMMENDATION.

Your committee, in conclusion, have only to recommend the several enactments which would be requisite to carry out the suggested adjustment if it should meet with the approval of the House:—

1. That whenever an annuity or other periodical payment shall comprise an advance or repayment of principal monies, no deduction in respect of income-tax shall be made from such principal monies.
2. That in the assessment of the rents or royalties of metallic mines, *i.e.*, copper, tin, lead, iron ore, and mundic, an abatement shall be made of one-fifth part in respect of the exhaustion of the mineral.
3. That in the assessment of the rents and royalties of earthy mines, *i.e.*, coal and iron-stone, and of slate and stone quarries, an abatement shall be made of one-tenth part in respect of the exhaustion of mineral and material.
4. That in the assessment of the rents of land, an abatement shall be made of one-twelfth part in respect of the outgoings in repairs and insurances.

5. That in the assessment of the rents of houses, an abatement shall be made of one-sixth part in respect of the outgoings in repairs and insurance.

6. That every ecclesiastical person in receipt of tithe rent-charge or other endowment with cure of souls annexed, shall receive on his assessment an allowance of the tax on 100*l.* in respect of the duty of the cure.

7. That so much of previous Acts be repealed as imposes a tax upon fines, being of the nature of rent, and received in consideration of the demise of lands, or tenements, the full annual value of which is assessed upon the occupier.

8. That all persons, firms, or partnerships (not being public companies) engaged in any farm, trade, manufacture, mining adventure, shipownership, profession, or occupation of profit, shall be assessed as follows, in respect of their net profits, gains, or salaries, *i.e.*, if such net profits, gains, or salaries, shall amount to 180*l.* and upwards, upon two-thirds of the amount thereof, and if such net profits, gains, or salaries amount to 100*l.* and do not exceed 180*l.*, then upon so much of such amounts as shall exceed 60*l.*

9. That the occupation of farms shall be assessed in England at one-third, and in Scotland and Ireland one-fourth of the annual value thereof.

10. That all superannuation allowances, or other annual payment being of the nature of compensation or reward for personal services, shall be assessed upon the same scale as salaries.

11. That section 133 of the statute 5 & 6 Vict. c. 35, be repealed.

FIRST CLASS.—INCOMES DERIVED FROM PROPERTY.

Present Schedule	Property.	To be Assessed.	Proposed Allowances.
A.	Land rented	Rack-rent, or rent by valuation ... Amount thereof.	{ For insurance and repairs, 1-12th part of rent.
A.	Land occupied		
A.	Rent-charge		
A.	Rent-charge, with cure of souls	Amount thereof.	{ On 100 <i>l.</i> for contingent duty of the cure.
A.	Houses rented	Rack-rent, or rent by valuation ...	{ For insurance and repairs, 1-6th part of rent.
A.	Houses occupied		
A.	Mines, metallic	Rents or royalties	One-fifth part of rent.
A.	Mines, earthy	Rents or royalties	One-tenth part of rent.
A.	Quarries		
A.	Manors	Amount of rents.	
A.	Fisheries... ..		
PUBLIC COMPANIES.			
A.	Railway, Canal, Mining, Dock, Gas, &c	Dividends.	
D.	Banking, trading, manufacturing		
MONEY LENT OR INVESTED.			
C.	Exchequer Bills	Annual interest.	
	Ditto Bonds		
C.	Annuities, perpetual	Annual interest on capital unpaid.	
C.	Annuities, terminable (Life) ...		
C.	Ditto ditto (Years)... ..	Annual interest.	
D.	Loans of all kinds		
E.	Pensions, hereditary, or granted on Consolidated Fund ...	Amount thereof.	
D.	Foreign Possessions, property and securities		

SECOND CLASS.—INDUSTRIAL INCOMES.

Present Schedule.	Source of Profits.	To be Assessed.
B.	Farms	Two-thirds of the net profits.
A.	Mining adventures	
D.	Manufactures	
D.	Trades	
D.	Shipping	
D.	Professions	
D. } E. }	Salaries, stipends, and superannuated allowances	Two-thirds the amount.

An Account showing the Amount of Duty of the Income-tax in each Year, since its Imposition in 1842, distinguishing the Rate of Duty in each Year, and the Proportion thereof Produced from each 1d. of the Duty under each Schedule.

Year ended April 5.	Rate of Duty on Incomes above 150l.	Total Amount of Duty Charged.	Total Amount Produced from each 1d. of Duty.
		£	£
1843	7d. in the £	5,608,548	849,013
1844	" "	5,504,157	833,207
1845	" "	5,476,497	828,636
1846	" "	5,711,224	863,307
1847	" "	5,791,067	873,588
1848	" "	5,834,795	879,518
1849	" "	5,793,543	875,108
1850	" "	5,729,577	865,149
1851	" "	5,754,447	867,880
1852	" "	5,845,719	879,446
1853*	" "	5,869,826	882,136

Year ended April 5.	Incomes of 100l. and under 150l.	Incomes of 150l. and Upwards.	Total Amount of Duty Charged.	Total Amount Produced from each 1d. of Duty.
			£	£
1854.....	5d. in the £	7d. in the £	7,133,039	1,101,334
1855.....	10d. "	1s. 2d. "	14,358,090	1,108,365
1856.....	11½d. "	1s. 4d. "	16,545,508	1,113,774
1857.....	11½d. "	1s. 4d. "	16,915,332	1,138,355
1858.....	5d. "	7d. "	7,905,525	1,217,140
1859.....	5d. "	5d. "	5,758,905	1,216,340
1860.....	6½d. "	9d. "	10,424,887	1,239,764

The following items are gathered from the evidence:—

Means for evading the Income-tax.—Mr. Newmarch stated:—"Plans have been invented, since the income-tax has been introduced into this country, by which the lenders of capital have secured themselves against the income-tax being deduced from more than that portion of the annual payment which represents interest. I believe those plans are perfectly legal, and are perfectly within the letter of the law. They are become very common, and I have brought with me actual copies of two schedules which were prepared under my own personal superintendence in connection with two actual transactions. The first is a schedule annexed to deeds connected with an advance of 30,000l., secured upon a life estate, and repayable by fourteen half-yearly equal payments, composed of, first, instalments of

* From 5th April, 1853, incomes between 100l. and 150l. were made subject to tax; from the same date the tax was also extended to Ireland.

SERIES A.

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[389]

principal; second, premiums on life insurance; and, third, interest at five per cent. per annum, on unpaid balance of the advance; the purpose of the schedule being to confine effectually the liability to income-tax to the payments of interest—and then follow the figures. The schedule sets out the figures for each of the fourteen half-years. Taking the first half-year, the half-yearly payment of principal was 1,797*l*.; the half-yearly payment for insurance was 282*l*.; the half-yearly payment for interest at five per cent. per annum on the balance of unpaid principal, was 742*l*.; and the total half-yearly payment paid by the borrower was 2,821*l*. Then during the thirteen succeeding payments, of course, the proportion paid for principal increased, and the proportion paid for interest diminished; and the facts were, that at the end of the fourteenth half-year, the portion of the principal repaid was 2,477*l*.; the sum paid for insurance was 281*l*., and the sum paid for interest was 61*l*.; the total half-yearly payment being, as at first, 2,821*l*.; it being a condition of the arrangement that the borrower should pay fourteen equal half-yearly sums, those sums being apportioned by the schedule into three parts, as I have stated to the committee.

The aggregate of the half-yearly payments seems to be the sum of 39,499*l*.; and, but for this arrangement, the whole of that sum would have been charged with income-tax. But under this arrangement the operation of the income-tax is confined to the interest of the 30,000*l*. in its different stages; so that the money advanced has been returned without being broken in upon by the operation of the tax. And if that arrangement could not have been carried out to the satisfaction of the lender, and it had been imperative upon the borrower to stipulate for the repayment of the 30,000*l*. in this form, the lender would naturally have protected himself by enhancing the terms so as to cover any possible charge which might arise from the indiscriminate assessment of the income-tax. The second case is a schedule annexed to deeds securing an advance of 5,000*l*. on mortgage of county rates, and repayable in twenty years, by twenty equal annual instalments of principal, and forty half-yearly payments of interest at five per cent. per annum. At the end of the first half-year the principal sum due was 5,000*l*., the interest was 125*l*.; the principal being payable by annual instalments. At the end of the third half-year the amount left of the principal was 4,750*l*., and the interest was 118*l*. 15*s*., 250*l*. of the principal having been paid off at the end of the first year; and the schedule shows how the columns are affected by the lapse of time, till you come to the end of the fortieth half-year.

Income.—What is income for the purpose of taxation? Mr. Hubbard said: "Income is that portion of the net revenue arising from real property which is available for the purpose of expenditure, and is that portion of the earnings of industrial professors which is also applicable to expenditure." By available income, Mr. Hubbard meant that which can properly be used without impairing his capital and without infringing upon the proportion of savings which, according to his position, he ought to effect. Dr. Farr said: "Under the income-tax the whole of a man's receipts in the year in some cases is called income; in others only part of his receipts is called income; now what comes into a merchant's account during the year is the value of his transactions, and in that sense might be called income; but no sensible person would for a moment call all money that passed through the book of a merchant his income; and even the tax is obliged to recognize the distinction between the whole amount that comes in, and what are called the

profits of a business. What I think may, for the purpose of an equitable tax, be called income, is the interest of money, and the net rent of land, and, in the case of professional incomes, the interest which would be derived from a perpetuity of the same value as a life annuity corresponding with the age of the professional man."

The value of mercantile incomes would be compounded partly of the interest of the money invested in the trade, and partly of the income derived from the skill and industry of the merchant or trader. Whatever he gained over and above the interest for his money, Dr. Farr would consider due to his skill and industry. And the principle which he adopted is that income should be taxed according to its value, and that for the purpose of ascertaining that value, he would look at its duration, and the rate of interest of money, and make his calculation accordingly on the ordinary principle on which these values are calculated in all the life offices in the kingdom.

Industrial Incomes.—Wide dissatisfaction at present exists on the part of the trading and industrial classes upon the income-tax. Upon this point Mr. Hubbard said: "In the first instance, I may point out to the committee, that as regards incomes arising from property and from capital invested in various ways, there arise these natural and legitimate complaints. The possessors of lands and houses complain that they are taxed upon the gross amount of their receipts under the shape of rent, and that they have no consideration for the necessary outgoings under the heads of insurance or repairs. The owners of mining property complain that no account is taken of the necessarily evanescent and perishable nature of their property; and, again, in the case of rents which are payable in the shape of fines at stated or uncertain periods, there is also a complaint that the Government exact a percentage of taxation upon the rent paid in the shape of fines, although the full annual value of the property has been already assessed in the possession of the tenant. Again, with regard to moneys which have been lent, the creditors of the State are very naturally dissatisfied to find that their claims upon the State have not been paid in full; that if they happen to be the holders of a claim upon the Government in the shape of a terminable annuity, the Government, instead of paying them in full, have deducted the tax upon the very capital which they have to repay; so that, in some instances, they may have lost as much as five per cent., having a claim upon the Government of 100*l.*, the Government give them a repayment of but 95*l.* Then coming to the other, and perhaps the wider class, that of industrial incomes, we find the declaration of an opinion very widely expressed in different ways, that those who labour for their subsistence are taxed upon the gross amount of the wages and profits which they receive through their industry and skill. And with regard to the administration of the tax, both classes, but especially the latter, complain that they are exposed to a great deal of annoyance and arbitrary treatment by those whose office it is to assess and collect the tax. Then, passing from the complaints of those who are the subjects of taxation, to the opinions of those who merely look upon the question in a philosophic point of view, or with a view to the redress of a grievance in which they are themselves not personally concerned, the observation is hardly to be avoided that the tax, as now worked, confounds property and income, capital and interest, as the subject of taxation, that it needlessly increases the temptation to fraud and to evasion, by the mode in which it fixes the point of exemption, and in which it makes the transition from the more indulgent assessment of 6*d.* in

the pound to the higher assessment of 9*d.*, so that the holders or the possessors of some incomes just above 100*l.* a year are always tempted by fraudulent means to represent them as below 100*l.* a year; and in the same way those who have incomes just above 150*l.* a year are always tempted to return them under 150*l.* Again, I may notice the complaints of the official administrators of the tax; they find that the returns of self-assessment (a feature of this tax, which is inseparable from its existence) indicate a fearful disregard of truth and honesty; and they bear witness to the trouble and expense of investigating suspicious returns, upon those points which I have already mentioned, to the labour and uncertainty of determining the validity of the numberless claims for a recovery of tax already paid, under the plea of being exempt, and to the labour of effecting the repayments consequent on the concession of these claims. Lastly, they complain of their insufficient power for enforcing properly the operation of the Act itself upon those who are fairly subject to its incidence."

Mr. Hubbard proposed to reduce one-third from the assessment of all industrial incomes, in the following manner:—The incomes arising from property, to reduce their gross amount by any outgoings to which they may be subjected; and incomes from industry, to reduce them by allowing for that measure of economy which persons engaged in industrial pursuits are obliged, from the nature of their business, to exercise. From the first class the deduction is specific. From the second take one-third. Land, either rented or occupied, requires a reduction from the rack-rent, or rent by valuation if the owner is occupier, of the outgoings in the shape of insurance and repairs; until that is done, you can hardly say that the landowner has an income which he can expend, and it is the income which he can expend which is the real, proper, and legitimate subject of taxation. In the same way houses are subject to the same outgoings, but to a larger extent, because the repairs upon houses are heavier than the repairs upon the buildings connected with landed property alone. Tithes or rent-charges partake very much of the nature of land, and so far as they do, they are also entitled to an abatement under the same heads of insurance and repairs, as well as of the rates which are already deducted. And if these rent-charges are held by ecclesiastical persons, they will in virtue of the condition under which they hold them be entitled to an allowance for the discharge of the duty which is an incident of their tenure. Mines, iron works, and quarries, so far as the rents or royalties arising from them are concerned, are entitled to an allowance which may be considered or proved equivalent to the annual depreciation. Terminable annuities, either for life or years, should be taxed only on the interest they comprise, and not on the capital repaid; the other items in the schedule require no abatement. The dividends arising from the investments in railway, canal, dock, mining, or gas companies, in banking, trading, or manufacturing companies, (in any companies, in truth), and the interest arising from the public funds, or from loans, either public or private, and pensions, he conceived to be entitled to no deduction, because there are no outgoings attaching to them. That concludes the first portion of the list. In the second schedule Mr. Hubbard classed together all industrial incomes, whether they be farms, trades of every kind, shipping, manufactures, professions, or salaries. Upon the whole of those sources of revenue he proposed to allow one-third, and to assess the remaining two-thirds at a uniform rate in harmony with the rate imposed upon incomes arising from property. Foreign property he placed

at the bottom of the second class; not with a very strong conviction that it should be there, but with an impression that it ought, and for the purpose of raising the issue: his impression was that it ought to have an indulgence which is not demanded by other properties which are locally created in this country, and therefore have a protection in that creation which foreign property has not.

Houses.—Mr. Hubbard thought that 16 per cent. should be allowed in order to cover the outgoings for insurance and repairs in the case of houses. Mr. Burgoyne estimated 15 per cent. as a proper allowance, though on small tenements at weekly rent the outgoing often amounted to 25 per cent.

Land.—Mr. Burgoyne said that the outgoings in the case of land might be fixed at $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. Other witnesses said that $5\frac{1}{2}$ to 6 per cent. would be sufficient. Mr. Clutton estimates the outgoing at 10 per cent.

Medical Profession.—The medical profession claimed a deduction from the assessment on medical incomes on the ground, mainly, that such incomes depend upon personal exertion; and that it is hard to tax such incomes equally with incomes from land. It was stated that, generally, the profession have it not in their power to save, particularly in the early days of a medical man, when the struggles of life are upon him. They usually make bad debts. Medical men are not like men in trade; they cannot make any discrimination; they must go when they are summoned, and they must take their chance of remuneration.

Mines and Collieries.—Mr. Taylor stated that there is a grievance in assessing the rents and royalties of mines as if they were an inexhaustible source of income. The ordinary value of land and landed estates varies from twenty-five to thirty years' purchase; the value of mineral royalties is pretty generally taken at thirteen or fourteen years' purchase. A mineral royalty is necessarily exhausted in course of time. Ten per cent. was generally considered a just deduction in this class of property.

Property and Income Tax.—Dr. Farr gave the following illustration of the distinction between property-tax and an income-tax, and of the necessity, in order to make the income-tax equitable, of assessing it equally upon the value of the property, and in proportion to the time:—"I should like to explain to the committee what I mean by a property-tax and an income-tax, as they are intimately connected together, and it would enable me also, I think, to correct a fallacy which is very current, and which was first brought before the committee of 1852 by Mr. Warburton. I should say that it is a very ingenious fallacy, and puzzles a great number of people, and is still current; even Mr. John Stuart Mill says, 'it is a visible injustice to tax all kinds of income exactly alike;' 'yet it does not arithmetically violate the rule, that taxation ought to be in proportion to means;' he then advances the fallacy; and every day I see it reproduced. Some of the most eminent actuaries gave in a letter, in which the fallacy was pointed out, and I also discussed it in a letter which was published in an appendix to the report of 1852; subsequently I read a paper, in which I treated the subject mathematically at the Statistical Society, and if I could venture to refer the committee to that paper, I think it would explain the fallacy. However, it would be useless to read the mathematical symbols to the committee, and I will rather ask to be allowed to illustrate it by a diagram. I will first of all state Mr. Warburton's principle. A member of the committee of 1852, who thoroughly understood the subject, put this question, No. 5,160, to Mr. Warburton:—'Suppose A. and B. each to

have 10,000*l*. A. has invested his 10,000*l*. in an annuity, which expires in 1852. B. has invested his 10,000*l*. in consols, which are returning him 300*l*. a year dividend; is it fair that A. should be taxed upon the whole 10,000*l*., and that B. should be taxed upon 300*l*. only?' Mr. Warburton's answer is:—'The 10,000*l*. which A. receives is to be treated as income, and therefore I say that if the State makes the income-tax a permanent source of revenue, he should pay 3*l*. per cent. upon that income of 10,000*l*., and if you will estimate the payment that is made upon that single year's income of 10,000*l*., it will be found to be equivalent to the tax that would be levied in perpetuity upon 10,000*l*. invested in property, yielding perpetual revenue. I see no distinction between the cases, whether you take one year or ten years, for which the terminable annuity is to run.' That is a very clear statement of the argument. Instead of 10,000*l*., I place one sovereign upon the table; I suppose that A. takes this sovereign, and lends it to a person who engages to pay what Mr. Warburton here assumes, 5 per cent. on it; at the end of the year of course the interest is paid and amounts to a shilling. I assume, to simplify the reasoning, that the income-tax is a penny in the shilling; that would be the income-tax assessed on the interest of money. If it was a penny in the pound, it would be assessed upon the property, this sovereign representing the capital or the property, this shilling the interest or the net income, and this penny the tax. The Chancellor of the Exchequer claims the penny on the ground that he renders services to the individual who owns the sovereign during the year, and the House of Commons thinks it reasonable to make that concession for the public service—for the army and navy, and other services of the State; accordingly, this person is called upon to pay a penny, and he pays a penny for that year; the next year he lends this sovereign to another person for another year, and he gets this second shilling; for you will observe that the interest of the money is proportionate to the time; at the end of that term, another penny is claimed for another year's service, the tax being uniform and perpetual, as Mr. Warburton assumes, and another penny is paid, and so, if it is lent for a third year, the same sovereign returns another shilling, and the tax collector gets another penny precisely for another year's service, and so on *ad infinitum*. I say that this is equitable if it can be shown that another person who is in the possession of two sovereigns pays two pennies a year *pro rata*, the person who has 10,000 sovereigns 10,000 pennies, and so on, year by year. The committee will observe, therefore, that the tax to be equitable, must be in proportion to the property and the time it is under the protection of the State, that is, to the service rendered by the State, so that the person who has two sovereigns and gets two shillings, pays two pennies every year. Then I say that the tax is perfectly fair. Now another person (B), being a person of great simplicity, believing very implicitly in Mr. Warburton, goes to an insurance office; I will take the rate of interest which Mr. Warburton himself assumed, and for the reasons he assumed; that it simplifies the calculation; but if you take any other rate of interest, you get exactly the same result so far as the reasoning is concerned. This person wants to buy an annuity for five years, but we will assume, as Mr. Warburton does, that he buys an annuity for a year, and that instead of 1,000*l*. a year, or whatever it might be, as Mr. Warburton takes it, he buys an annuity of a guinea. He asks the insurance office its value; the insurance office says 1*l*., he pays the 1*l*., and at the end of the year he goes

to receive his annuity, which is a guinea; at that time the tax collector appears, and asks for the income-tax on it; he says that the whole of it, or the 21s., is income; he must have 1d. for each of those shillings; he therefore takes from this unfortunate man his 12d., and 9d. more, making 21d. The man (A.) who had a sovereign, and got 1s. for it, pays one penny; and this man (B.) who had the same property invested at the same rate of interest, is asked under the present income-tax to pay 21 pennies. A. has this sovereign capital, this shilling interest, and pays this penny of tax. Now look at this picture and on that: B. has this sovereign of capital, this shilling of interest, and from him for the same year's service, the tax collector takes these 21 pennies. Of course, he is very much startled, but he is referred to Mr. Warburton's argument, and Mr. Warburton's argument attempts to show that he is dealt with quite fairly on this ground. Mr. Warburton reasons thus: he says, it is true that the one man pays 21 pennies, but the other man is going to pay a penny a year, say, for 21 years, or for ever, because we have granted that the income-tax is to be perpetual; and he therefore will ultimately pay the Chancellor of the Exchequer 21 pennies or their value, and it is therefore perfectly fair. But you will observe that the tax is levied for service rendered by the State during the year to each of the individuals. It is therefore, I say, perfectly monstrous and absurd to make the man who has bought the temporary annuity pay 21 pennies for the same service that the State can discharge in the other case for one penny. At the end of the year, he might wish to repeat his investment, but, of course, his confidence being rather shaken in Mr. Warburton, he is unwilling to do so; then he is told that the tax is only for one year, and he cannot detect the fallacy of the reasoning, so he goes and repeats the operation; he pays again the 1l. for another annuity, for the same term, and gets his guinea. According to Mr. Warburton's reasoning, he ought to be exempted for ever from any further tax; but, instead of that, he finds that 21 pennies are again demanded from him; and so they would be every year for the 21 years, and he would therefore be called upon, having exactly the same property as the other man, to pay 21 times as much. He is ruined; but his eyes are opened, and he detects the source of the fallacy. Mr. Warburton's arithmetic is quite irreproachable: his manipulation of the formula is perfectly correct, but he has committed an oversight, which is not uncommon in persons who apply mathematics to subjects with which they are not very familiar. He has omitted the element of time in constructing his equation; he has committed precisely the same error, and obtains as absurd results as would be given by the equation, showing the space through which a body falls, if the element of time were omitted. Of course, the rent of land is paid on the same principle as a property-tax should be levied; so much rent is paid for so many acres of land, and it is paid at so much per annum. You are not satisfied with getting the same rent for two years' tenancy as you are getting for one year's; and, in the same manner the interest of money is proportional to the quantity of property, and also to the time that the property is under investment. To make the income-tax equitable it is a self-evident axiom that it should be assessed equally upon the value of the property, and in proportion to the time; and this man (B.), therefore, will, under the honourable chairman's plan, be called upon to pay only one penny, or precisely the same as the other man; and in that way the dealers in those two classes of securities will be placed on a level, and would be

treated equitably. That is only another way of saying that a guinea annuity is a sovereign capital, and a shilling interest. When it is assessed on the sovereign, it is a property-tax; and when it is assessed on the shilling, it is an income-tax. Now, reference was made to the rate of interest; of course, if the rate of interest was less (and it might be reduced to 6*d.* in the pound, for instance) in that way, as property of different kinds might return different rates of interest, the two would not exactly coincide; but from a comprehensive view of the thing, you will see that the profits on property, under different kinds of investments, tend to equilibrium. If the profits from investing capital in one particular branch of business are excessive, there will be a flow of capital to that business which will bring down those profits to the ordinary average level, so that ultimately, whether you assess your tax on the property or on the net income, you come to nearly the same result."

Mr. John Stuart Mills' evidence was to the effect that the present tax is unjust in its incidence upon small incomes, and in pressing equally upon permanent and temporary incomes. In principle, life incomes should be dealt with differently than permanent incomes. But there are exemptions from this rule. "There are a number of interests which are life interests, one may say, only in name, and in a sense which is quite consistent with the tenant in possession being able to spend the whole of the income without imprudence. For instance, a tenant in possession of settled property, though he may be only a tenant for life, has no claim to exemption, because the reason on which I would give an exemption in other cases does not apply to him. It may be fairly presumed that if he has any person whom he is bound to provide for, that is, if he has any children, for that is the only case that can be laid down as a case of obligation, they are probably provided for by the same settlement under which he is a tenant for life. The same reason applies to the next heir, the person who, under the settlement, will come in next. He may have an allowance by the settlement, which is, of course, liable to income-tax, and I do not think that he has any claim to be taxed on less than its entire amount, because as he is to come into the whole property ultimately, he is not obliged to save out of his income, the amount of which, probably, has been adapted to his present needs and expenditure, and nothing else. Mr. Mill argued that savings are now taxed twice, and that such taxation is impolitic and unjust.

Mr. Mill is in favour of a succession-tax, though a tax upon capital. He did not think that the principle of equality of taxation has any application to the case of taxes on succession. It seemed to him that taxes on succession stand on a different foundation from all other taxes, and that the State is entitled, in reference to them, to consider public policy and general morality, abstractedly from the special rule of equality of taxation. If a person is allowed by the State to succeed to that which he has not earned, but has obtained without any exertion, that is a privilege which he owes to the existence of law and society, to which the State is entitled to annex conditions, and if those conditions are just, when tried by a higher principle of morality, no general principle of equality of taxation has any application to them. The proper principle in theory is to exempt what a man does save, but as this cannot be ascertained the principle to be acted upon is to exempt what it may be concluded he ought to save.

POOR LAW, ENGLAND.

Report of a Select Committee of the House of Commons, appointed to inquire into the Administration of the Relief of the Poor under the Orders, Rules, and Regulations issued by the Poor Law Commissioners and the Poor Law Board, pursuant to the provisions of the Poor Law Amendment Act, and into the Operation of the Laws relating to the Relief of the Poor.

THE committee was appointed on the 8th February, 1861, and was nominated on the 22nd, as follows:—Mr. Sotheron Estcourt, Mr. Bazley, Mr. Ayrton, Lord Fermoy, Mr. Villiers, Mr. Walpole, Mr. Edward Pleydell Bouverie, Sir Asher Buller, Mr. Kekewick, Colonel Pennant, Lord Stanley, Lord Robert Cecil, Sir William Joliffe, Mr. Lowe, Sir John Acton, Lord Edward Howard, Sir George Bowyer, Mr. Caird, Mr. Alderman Sidney, Mr. Lyall, and Mr. Monckton Milnes.

The committee examined a large number of witnesses; it sat thirty-six times, and, on the 26th July, reported as follows:—Your committee have examined many witnesses upon several of the subjects comprehended in the matters referred to them; but have not been able to conclude their inquiry in the present session. They have from time to time reported to the House the evidence in different branches of their inquiry; and they recommend the re-appointment of the committee in the next session of Parliament.

The following items are gathered from the evidence of witnesses:—

Poor Law Board.—Mr. Collinson, chairman of the Board of Guardians of St. George the Martyr's Parish, decidedly approved of a controlling power. It is a protection to boards of guardians. Persons very often come and want money to redeem tools from pledge, and want money to set them up in business, and want money to pay rent. We say (and it is a great protection to the guardians), "No, it is contrary to the law; we must not do it." And when people know that to be the case, it prevents their applying.

Mr. John Bowring said that the elastic character of its authority is very useful. He did not think that the poor law administration could be properly carried out without the authority of the Poor Law Board, and for this reason: that, supposing the rules and regulations of the Poor Law Board to be perfect in themselves now, under existing circumstances, and supposing it to be the opinion of the Legislature that they should be embodied in an act of Parliament, they would at once be inflexible, they would be a stiff unbending thing; next month they might not be suitable to the circumstances of the times, and then nothing but a new act of Parliament would enable the country to relieve itself of the difficulty, whereas the Poor Law Board next month, seeing that the circumstances were altered, and that their present rules were inapplicable to those circumstances, could at once rescind the whole of their orders, and make those which would meet the exigencies that had arisen.

Comparatively few unions have passed resolutions in favour of altering or abolishing the powers of the central board, and a witness stated that much advantage has resulted from the operation of the Poor Law Board, especially in country districts, where less efficient guardians are to be found. The Camberwell guardians were also strongly impressed in favour of super-

vision by a central board. And Mr. Ryley, an actuary, said it would be an improvement upon the present system if the Poor Law Commission were a permanent, rather than a temporary and changeable, body.

On the other hand, Mr. Stockton, a director of the poor of the Parish of St. Pancras, objected to the undue interference of the Central Board. A meeting of guardians took place, when forty unions were represented, with a view to endeavour to obtain a diminution of the powers of the Poor Law Board, when sought to be renewed; and petitions have been presented from 104 unions on the subject. Mr. Potter, guardian of the West London Union, did not wish the Central Board to be abolished; but that its powers be modified, and that the powers to issue general orders should be withdrawn. The Shoreditch guardians were also of opinion that the powers of the board should be curtailed. The minute interference of the Poor Law Board merely annoys the guardians, without benefiting the poor or the rate-payers.

Boards of Guardians.—It would supply a great deficiency in the administration of the poor laws if gentlemen or persons of influence, not rate-payers, were entitled to sit at the board of guardians. Mr. Johnson said that there was a great difficulty in obtaining persons of proper intelligence and importance to act as guardians. One reason is the utter ignorance which exists about the poor law. He thought tracts should be published upon the respective rights of the poor and of the ratepayers.

Roman Catholics.—There are in London about 250,000 Roman Catholics. Taking the metropolis at 3,000,000, it follows that about one in twelve of the population are Catholics. And ninety per cent. of them belong to the poorer classes, most of whom are Irishmen, and their immediate descendants and grandchildren. From different returns, the Rev. J. Morris concluded that there were, on the 1st January, 1860, 2,528 Roman Catholic adult paupers in the metropolitan workhouses, and yet only 103 children were receiving instruction as Roman Catholics, though there must be between 1,000 and 2,000. According to his calculation, there were on that date nearly 6,000 Roman Catholics in the schools. It would be well if there were more Roman Catholic guardians; but there are very few of them—first, because the Protestant ratepayers will not elect them; and, secondly, because very few of them will stand.

The Roman Catholic witnesses stated that the requirement of a personal application to have the children treated as Roman Catholics, has a deterrent effect upon the parents, and he produced the following and other instances in illustration of this:—"Two children, named Sabina and William M'Fadden, aged respectively about eleven and ten, were, though Catholics, entered in the Bradford Union as Protestants. They were brought to the workhouse by their grandfather, also a Catholic. No questions were put about the religion, and the master took it upon himself to enter them as Protestants. Attending the workhouse in April, I heard from an inmate that the elder, the little girl, was dying, and was attended by the Protestant chaplain. I at once applied to the master to see her, but, of course, was refused, and had shown me the register, in which they were entered as Protestants. The master would listen to no proof to the contrary; would not see the grandfather, who was on the spot to tell him his child wanted a priest. I appealed to the guardians next board-day; made my case strong enough, God knows; produced the baptismal certificate of the boy: the girl was not baptised in Bradford. I asked for permission to see

the child, but was refused. The grandfather was examined by the guardians as to his religion, and the religion he wished to have the child educated in; and he replied, unhesitatingly and boldly, he was a Catholic, and his child should be one as well; but all to no purpose. After a smart discussion, my request was negatived by a small majority. No change could be made unless the surviving parent, who abandoned the children, came forward to claim them, or unless the sponsors wished it. The parent was nowhere. The boy's sponsors were dead; one of the girl's was in America, and the other in Leicester; and by next board-day I was told if I had their request in writing, and made before a magistrate, or master of a union, I could have the registry changed. I saw, of course, there was no hope for the boy, and feared but just as little for the girl. I just saw her, and knew she could not live till next board-day, and knew also the Protestant chaplain was vigorous in his exertions. So I put the question, in case I could get the required statement from the godmother before next meeting, would the guardians now give the order that the child be transferred to the Catholic registry immediately upon making application to the master, as I found the child could not live till that day week. The guardians most unwillingly made the order. This was on Wednesday evening. I wrote off to Leicester immediately, and on Friday morning I had a letter containing the godmother's request. I went to the union, and to my great joy found the child still alive. I instructed her, gave her confession and extreme unction, and next morning the holy viaticum and last blessing. She died early on Sunday morning. She died, poor child, in her godmother's arms, who came on Saturday from Leicester, fearing all might not be right."

The Roman Catholics complained that the creed register is not well known, and they desired a power of appeal against incorrect entries. Mr. Morris showed that undue influence has been exercised when there are only a few recognized Catholic children amongst a large number of Protestants, as at Anerley and Hanwell. In London no provision is made for Catholics to attend divine worship. The rule frequently is that they are not allowed to go out until they are sixty years of age. That is the case in St. Olave's workhouse. No special opportunity is afforded to Catholic paupers to receive communion at Easter. Those who are at liberty to go to mass may make use of that opportunity of receiving communion; but it is very difficult for them to do it, inasmuch as confession comes before communion, and those who go have seldom more than the time allowed them that the service occupies in the church; besides which it is often an eleven o'clock mass that they are allowed to attend, and communicants in the Catholic church receive it fasting, and consequently the greatest possible difficulties are thrown in the way of communion, even as regards those paupers who are at liberty to hear mass; the others, in a vast number of cases, have no means whatever provided for them.

There are, moreover, great impediments to the celebration of mass in the workhouse, so that the Roman Catholics cannot observe an essential part of their religion. So it is as regards baptism, undue obstacles being interposed on the performance of it in the workhouse. Mr. Morris objected to the regulation as to the request of the inmate being necessary before a priest can be admitted to see him, and he gave instances of Roman Catholics having died without a priest having been sent for. At St. Pancras and Whitechapel the inmate must make a renewed application every time

he wants the priest. Complaint was also made of the undue prohibition of the use of Roman Catholic books. In comparing the different position of Catholics and Protestants, the Rev. Mr. Morris said :—In the first place Protestant paupers have a chaplain paid for out of the rates, who has no difficulty in ascertaining who those are who belong to him. On the other hand, the Catholic paupers have no chaplain, and the priest who attends them has no payment, although Catholics contribute their quota to the rates. He has no access to the creed register, and his means of ascertaining his flock in the workhouse is accidental. The Protestant chaplain is allowed to visit the paupers at his discretion, while the Catholic priest is only allowed to visit even a Catholic on special request, often to be made through the master. The Protestant chaplain is allowed to collect them for religious service and instruction both on Sundays and week days, while a Catholic pauper, under fifty or sixty years of age, is often not allowed to go out to his church on Sundays; and no religious service or instruction is allowed, and no provision is made for either in the workhouse. The Protestant paupers are allowed their prayer-books and catechisms; Protestant tracts are distributed to Protestants and Catholics alike, while Catholic visitors are not allowed to give Catholic books to Catholic paupers. In some workhouses Catholic paupers are not allowed their prayer-books or catechisms, or are put under restrictions in the use of them. If a Protestant pauper is dying, the master is obliged by the consolidated order to send for the chaplain, but no such obligation exists in the case of a Catholic pauper, but on the contrary, the priest is not sent for unless a request is made, and the request is often not counted valid if it is made by a relative, or even by the dying pauper himself, unless it is made through the master. Protestant chaplains, scripture readers, and dissenting ministers, are allowed to preach in sick wards to Protestants and Catholics, and even to speak against the religion of the latter; and it is a standing rule in London workhouses that in the sick wards there are religious addresses made, from which Catholics cannot exempt themselves, and they often complain bitterly of them, and think it is a very great hardship they should be subjected to them." The Rev. Mr. Morris argued in favour of the appointment of a paid Roman Catholic chaplain wherever there is a certain number of Roman Catholics, such appointment to rest with the Poor Law Board. This is the practice in Ireland. It would be expedient also that priests should have access to those in need of religious consolation. Separate schools should also be established for Roman Catholics at the expense of the State.

In support of the present system, it was stated that it would be inexpedient to allow Roman Catholic clergymen to address the children and adults generally. Mr. Turner stated that the demand for the visits of the priests does not come from the people. Several witnesses approved of the practice of treating orphans or deserted children as Protestants, even when it is known that their parents were Roman Catholics. The appointment of Roman Catholic chaplains would be highly inexpedient. If they were to be appointed, they would directly become acknowledged officials; they would have the full right of entering into the workhouse at all times, like the Protestant chaplain; and they would also claim the right of visiting their people, and of assembling them to religious worship; in fact, they would seek to establish that worship which is consistent with their religion. Mr Bird objected in the first place, upon principle, to the appointment. He

objected, also, that it would give them an opportunity of proselytising, of which they no doubt would avail themselves if they could; they will go into the workhouses at all times to see the inmates because it is impossible in workhouses to separate the inmates entirely; and holding as he did the Protestant religion to be the true one, he very strongly objected to anything being done which is calculated to undermine it. Mr. Ackworth saw there would be strong objections to separate schools being established out of the rates for Roman Catholic children. It would be better to have separate establishments altogether than to grant separate schools. The large proportion of Roman Catholics in prisons and workhouses is itself an argument against the teaching of that faith by which such result has been produced.

Mr. Turner gave evidence in direct opposition to the suggestions set forth in the abstract of a certain bill proposed by the Roman Catholic body. As for the St. Pancras workhouse, Mr. Turner said, "Roman Catholics can have the priest to see them at any time they wish, and have the rites of their church administered to them in the house; they are at liberty to go out on Sundays, if they desire it, and on any saints' days, if they request the master to allow them to do so; and every person is allowed to go out once a month. Roman Catholics have privileges above those enjoyed by Protestants; the very fact of their being Roman Catholics is sufficient to enable them to go out on Sundays, irrespective of the rules which are provided as regards the aged, and so on, provided they are well-conducted. This is irrespective of age.

"When they come back, we do not ask them where they have been; they return whenever they think fit during the day, and we do not ask them where they have been. Then as regards the children; of course the parents have the same opportunity of expressing their wish as to the religious education of their children, and any wish expressed by them would be attended to; but as regards orphans, it would seem to be preposterous to expect the master to search for, and hunt out, the religion of every child. I find in this pamphlet, *The Catholic in the Workhouse*, an abstract of a bill which is proposed to be introduced into Parliament, with a view to provide a remedy for the grievances of which the Roman Catholics complain; and on page 38 of the pamphlet, I find the fourth section of the bill set out in these terms: 'That where any of such inmates shall be less than fifteen years of age, the master shall at once proceed to inquire the religious denomination of the father, if he be living, of such inmate; and upon ascertaining the same, he shall register the inmate as of that denomination, or of such other as the father may direct; but if the father be dead, then the master shall proceed to inquire the religious denomination of the mother, if she be living, of such inmate; and upon ascertaining the same, he shall register the inmate as of that denomination, or of such other as the mother may direct, unless it be proved that the father of such inmate gave directions as to the religious denomination of such inmate, in which case such directions shall be followed; and if both parents be dead, the master shall proceed to inquire the religious denomination of the last surviving parent, and upon ascertaining the same, he shall register the child as of that religious denomination, unless it be proved that the father otherwise directed, in which case he shall register the inmate according to such directions.' It seems to be preposterous to suppose that the master of a workhouse should be required to go and hunt up the religion of children,

when we have them coming in and going out of the workhouse daily; if such a thing as that were exacted, the master would be required to be continually searching for, and ascertaining the religion of the children in the workhouse, a thing which appears to me to be preposterous and impracticable."

Mr. Turner had decided objection also to the proposition that Roman Catholic inmates shall not be present at any religious service not given by or in the presence of the proposed Roman Catholic chaplain. The clause in the proposed bill, is as follows:—"No Protestant inmate whatsoever shall be required or be permitted to be present at any religious service or instruction in such workhouse not given by or in the presence of the Protestant chaplain or other Protestant official, nor shall any Roman Catholic inmate be required or permitted to be present at any religious service or instruction aforesaid not given by or in the presence of the Roman Catholic chaplain or other Roman Catholic official in such workhouse; and for the purpose of carrying out this provision the respective chaplains and other officials who may assist or preside, or be present at any such religious service or instruction, shall call the 'creed register,' and shall see that no inmates are present but such as lawfully may be; nor shall either of the said chaplains, or other officials whatsoever, in any way interfere, by religious advice or instruction, with inmates not being registered as of his religious denomination, on pain of dismissal, at the discretion of the Poor Law Board: provided that if any inmate, being above the age of fifteen years, shall request the master, matron, or other like officer to send for a chaplain, not being the chaplain of the religious denomination as of which such inmate is registered, it shall be the duty of such officer at once to convey such request; and the chaplain so required may thereupon attend such inmate, and repeat such attendance as often as from time to time the same may in like manner be required." That seems to me to be about the worst clause there is in the bill; and it seems to me to substantiate what I have said, that it would be necessary that an entirely separate establishment should be kept up for Roman Catholics; it denies entirely the right of any Roman Catholic inmate in the workhouse to be present at any religious service not given by or in the presence of the Roman Catholic chaplain, whether he wishes to do so or not. If he expresses a wish to be present during the teaching of a Protestant clergyman, he is not allowed to do so; but the clause provides that the Protestant clergyman, before he proceeds to his instructions, shall call the "creed register" over, and see that no Catholic inmates are present.

On the other hand, Mr. Turner had no objection to Roman Catholic parents taking their children with them to divine service. Mr. Bird had no objection to Roman Catholic priests visiting their own people, but he objected to their visiting them as chaplains.

Distress in the Metropolis.—There was a great increase of pauperism in certain weeks in 1860-61. Mr. Bromley gave evidence to the effect that there was frightful destitution in the metropolis during the late severe weather. In many districts there were voluntary societies, but they were quite inadequate. In Mr. Bromley's opinion, there is more distress in severe weather in the metropolis than in continental towns. Mr. Knox, of the Worship Street police-court, gave the following evidence of the result of his inquiries in a house-to-house visitation:—We obtained an order from the commissioners of police, which gives access to the lodging-houses, under

the Act, and we went round to visit the district in the night, when the people were not aware that we were coming. As we walked round the district the people ran out from the courts and lanes and entreated us to come in and look at their places and lodgings, and certainly I saw sights of the most extreme and awful misery; there was no doubt about it; their articles of furniture were gone from the house; the frame of a bedstead would be remaining, and the sacking gone; there were a man and his wife and six children lying upon shavings in the room; they would show you a parcel of pawn-tickets, with nothing remaining in the room; and I beheld sights such as you would not suppose it possible to witness in London. Satisfied of the distress, we proceeded upon the system of house-to-house visitation, and I suppose that 700*l.* or 800*l.* was disposed of from the court, and the rest was entrusted in the main to clergymen of all denominations. We had recourse to expedients like these: there were persons fainting in the ragged schools from the want of food, and we got soup for them; the societies in the district helped us; in 90 or 95 per cent. of these cases the people were absolutely visited at their own houses; the fact of their misery was tested and relief was given, the relief being a few coals and a few loaves of bread, and from 5*s.* to 1*s.*, and we would stand discussing and considering whether it was to be 2*s.* or 1*s.* 6*d.*

Mr. Bromley stated that the inadequacy of the Poor Law machinery generally during the last pressure was fully shown by the great destitution which it did not touch. Mr. Yardley, on the other hand, said that a great number of complaints were wholly unfounded. And Mr. Selfe said that there is a large amount of distress which the Poor Law can never touch. In Mr. Gilbert's opinion, one-half of the suffering poor never come under the notice of the Poor Law, on account of their strong aversion to become paupers, or on account of the difficulty of their reaching the relieving officers. Mr. Gilbert said,—Everybody that I met with spoke of the behaviour of the guardians of the poor of St. George's, Southwark, as being exceedingly humane, but the class of poor suffering in this way would not apply for Poor Law relief, but would almost starve first. We established a soup-kitchen in St. Michael's, Lant Street, and I was invited to go and see the arrangements for their relief; I went one day when no one expected me, and saw a train of about 120 women waiting for relief from the tickets which they received. I never saw such poverty amongst women or children in my life. I saw most deplorable cases in that crowd of women who went up to receive their relief; I made several inquiries about it; I was pointed to one old woman, and I was told that her horror of parochial relief was so great, that somebody having given her shelter, she had contrived to exist all through the winter upon 1*s.* 6*d.* a week, which she earned, and she never went beyond it, occasionally getting a little soup, and nothing else.

Emigration.—The guardians asked enlarged powers upon the subject of emigration; and they anticipated great advantages if the directors had power to forward the emigration of paupers, of young women more especially. Several unions complained of the interference of the Central Board, and argued that emigration ought to be left to the control of the guardians and parish officers, because they know the parties, and are most competent to judge the matter.

Employment.—Great inconvenience arises from the want of power to send children more than forty miles from London. An opportunity was

offered to apprentice some forty or fifty boys at Burnley, but it could not be done. The guardians should have power to send poor persons to their homes or where they had friends, notwithstanding their irremovability. Mr. Farnal objected to pauper boys and girls being sent out into the world before fourteen or fifteen years of age. There is much prejudice against the employment of children from workhouse schools. Mr. Tuffnell said that at about fourteen years of age situations are generally found for the children in the district schools, the demand for them being greater than the supply. It is much better for the children when they leave the schools to be placed at a distance from their parents or relations, otherwise they frequently lose their character and return to the workhouse.

Homes or Industrial Institutions.—The guardians require power to place girls in a home. Mr. Box, of the parish of St. James, said,—We have a boys' and girls' industrial school at Battersea, and we keep them until we hear of situations for them. It often happens that those girls go to situations where there are no other servants, and do not get on with their mistresses at first; having been there some time they are probably ill used, and they come back to us, and then we are in this difficulty—we do not like to send them to school, and it is ruin to send them into the workhouse; and what we wish is, that we should have the power of giving those girls something like a training; the boys we train to different trades. We want the girls to avoid the workhouse; we feel that by going there they get contaminated, and come out anything but what we wish them to be. We think they have not had a fair chance, many of them never having known a father or mother, and only having had just that instruction at our school, they are ignorant of the world, and in nine cases out of ten they fail. The half of them, moreover, are not successful in the situations they get. In many cases, it may be, the girl is very much to be pitied; she is taken into a house where there is no other servant, and she is expected to be cook, housemaid, nursemaid, and everything, whilst she has never been trained to anything.

Mr. Twining doubted as to the number of girls in the London workhouses for whom industrial homes might be desirable, but he thought that they would be valuable in preserving girls from the contaminating influences of the workhouse. Boards of guardians should be empowered to give out-door relief to girls in industrial homes. The Hon. Mrs. Way said that it was very important to establish homes into which girls on leaving their situations might be received, instead of going back to the workhouse. A principal reason is the bad name that workhouse children have got, which prevents them getting employment. The proposed homes should be supported partly by the parishes, and the buildings might be given by the State. Every person in the workhouse costs 8s. a week, but a person in these homes may be maintained at 7s. a week. This system is greatly beneficial, from the fact that the children who lose their situations have a home to go to instead of returning to the workhouse: and they have the power, while they are in the home, of earning something for themselves, and so obtaining a feeling of self-respect. Upon this proposal of a home, Mr. Cooke gave a strong evidence in opposition:—It is desirable that a child should know its own position, although it is a pauper child; I think it is right that it should know the class to which it belongs; and, as far as I can judge, it seems to me not to be desirable that those facts should be disguised, or that you should put a child into so artificial a position that

it does not know its own status, or the difficulties that it will have to contend with in life. It is an amiable thing, no doubt, to place a number of pauper girls in a situation in which they shall not know anything disagreeable about themselves. But this paradisaical arrangement seems to be most partially monopolized. Independent men's children are not provided with such delicate delusions; but if an independent boy's father is a drunkard, everybody twits him with it; if his mother is a slattern, that is not disguised from him; if his brother is a thief, it sticks to the boy; if his sister is frail, he hears of it; but in the pampering, coddling system which is recommended by some philanthropists, it is proposed that a certain number of paupers, girls for the most part (boys and girls, perhaps), shall be taken away, and made to believe that they are not what they really are, but that they are something or somebody else, and though deeply-dyed paupers in fact, they are not to hear the name of pauper. It is even sought to be carried so far as to make them, in fact, doubly and trebly paupers, but still in this soft disguise. I find that, besides these "district" schools, it is proposed that we should have "homes" into which the young ladies are to go when out of service, and, as they never heard before in the district school, so they are never to hear again that they have ever been paupers. It is proposed that the expense of such homes shall be borne by the public, but that the people who are to regulate these homes shall be looked on not as administrators of so much poor rate, but as "friends" of these young ladies, owning no common relationships, fed, clothed, and educated from unknown sources, under the loving guidance of an amiable lady "friend," and guarded in their entrance into the world by a chaplain chaperon, colluding in the eleemosynary travesty. In truth, the whole thing is to be a very pretty philanthropic romance, in which the truth is to be carefully concealed from those who are the only parties really interested in knowing it. But it will be more tedious, dragged through sixteen years and more of a pauper's life, than a Spanish comedy in sixteen acts, in which everybody is mystified, and everybody resolutely shuts his eyes, lest he should discover who he is himself, or who anybody else is.

Mr. Coode further stated that there is the greatest objection to continue girls longer than up to the age of sixteen in a state of pauper dependence and tuition. As regards the girls having no home to go to when they leave service, most town servants are in the same situation. A town servant does not commonly go to her relations, who live in places which are too remote. All town servants are much in the same condition. Practically, although they may have fathers and mothers, and although they may have a home, it is not an available home for a servant who wishes to advance herself. A servant who has left a place with a fair character will seek for a situation within an accessible distance of the place she has left; her character will not attend her in the country; she cannot get people to take her with a written character; she cannot go to her friends, therefore, who live at a distance. And it must be remembered that, as regards orphans, although they have not fathers and mothers living, they have brothers, sisters, uncles, aunts, and other relations, glad to lodge them if they have saved any money. It appears to me that such schemes as those which have been suggested have an obvious tendency to make girls negligent of those habits of providence which it is desirable to encourage and enforce. We learn, from the proceedings of savings banks and other provident institutions, that the serving class are very considerable depositors; and I know

that servants are constantly in the habit of saving money, in order that they may be not without a home when they are out of place. But here it is proposed that there shall be a privileged class of pauper girls (I do not know of any "home" and supposititious "friends" for boys out of service), for whom a "home" is to be found; that they shall go to that "home," because they have been paupers; and that they shall be relieved from the necessity to which other poor girls are subject of putting by something out of their earnings to provide themselves with lodgings when they are out of place. All these proposals seem to be only modes of doubling and trebling pauperism factitiously; it seems to me to be a lack-a-daisical kind of philanthropism, full of folly and fraught with danger.

Improvvidence of Lower Classes.—The labouring classes are less provident than the agriculturists. In agricultural districts a man makes a habit of saving, if it is only a penny or twopence a week, so as to get something by Christmas, or for keeping a pig towards paying his rent, or something of that sort. But in London they spend a great deal in amusement and drink. A man has no right to spend money in pleasure excursions, unless he can also provide for periods of pressure. Improvidence is certainly a main cause of destitution. The classes from whom the greatest number of applications for poor relief came were the bricklayers and brickmakers, and what are called the navvies—three classes who perhaps make, two of them at least, higher wages than any other labourers in London, but who have no providence whatever. There are places, however, where it would be impossible for the labourers to save out of their wages, when they have families.

Workhouse or Labour Test.—A great number in Whitechapel refused to undergo the labour test as a condition of relief. Mr. Stockton thought it expedient generally to apply some test as a check upon imposture. The kind of test might differ, according to individuals. Mr. Stockton said: I should never apply the test of the workhouse to a really unfortunate respectable ratepayer; I would then give out-door relief; I would not brand him with the name of a pauper. I am speaking of that class of society who are really unfortunate, who have been ratepayers, and perhaps in a respectable position in life, and who have been unfortunate and reduced to penury; to such a class I would not, unless they wished it, apply the workhouse test. But generally Mr. Stockton would have tests of different sorts; he would have the stone-yard; he would have picking oakum, and he would have the workhouse.

Some witnesses said, however, that the workhouse test was applied rather too harshly in London during the pressure. Different kinds of tests might be applied. Mr. Farnall said, that when he had the manufacturing districts of Lancashire and Yorkshire, exactly the same thing occurred. It was stated that it would spoil the hands of a man to be working away with a stone hammer if he has to go back to the delicate work of the structure of silk; but there was no difficulty in employing them upon horsehair; it might be unravelled, and untwisted, and made ready for the furniture-maker, and that is not an uncommon test in this metropolis. And then there is grinding corn, if they chose to set them to work, on small hand-mills. There is the untwisting of cocoa-nut fibre, there is mat-making, and wood-cutting, chopping small bundles of deal to make into firewood; in fact, there are a great many tests if they choose to adopt them. There are some places where they have no stone-yard, but then they have always another test;

they take care always to have another test out of doors. He knew no place where there is not a test of some sort or other. In the returns which were made to him of various kinds after the late crisis was over, as to what they had done with the persons, it appeared that they all had tested them either with work of some sort or other, or with the stone-yard, excepting in the case of Greenwich, where they seem to have broken down, and therefore they gave away some loaves without any test; but in the other cases the tests were offered freely by the guardians, both in the workhouse and out of doors, by work of some sort or other. Mr. Farnall thought that the gentlemen on the committee have the details in print as to the numbers to whom a test was offered, and the numbers who accepted it. The test of either the workhouse or the stone-yard, or some other work, was offered to 15,463 men, and of those 1,003 came into the workhouse, and 4,230 accepted the stoneyard; out of the whole 15,463, therefore, there were only 5,233 who accepted the test at all.

On the other hand, Mr. Selfe said, that the workhouse test was quite unfit in the case of a vast number of deserving poor; it was, in effect, positive refusal of relief. The poor are generally averse to the workhouse, because of the restraint and the breaking up of their homes. In many instances the poor would rather starve than enter the Bethnal Green Workhouse, although one of the best.

Education and Industrial Training.—Great progress and improvement have been made since 1841 in the workhouses and workhouse schools, whereas the Education Commission have based their report upon the state of things in that year. That commission recommended: "That the influences of workhouses on the children educated within their walls being pernicious, the separation of children from adult paupers be enforced." "That as the best means for effecting this, the Poor Law Board be empowered to order the hiring or building of district schools. But that in case of any union undertaking to provide a separate school at a distance of not less than three miles from the workhouse, the order be suspended and be revoked, if the separate school be established and certified by the inspector of pauper schools to be sufficient." "That the Poor Law Board be empowered to order the establishment of a separate school by any union which they do not think fit to incorporate in a district." Those are the three propositions which relate to in-door paupers. Then the 37th has reference to out-door paupers. It is, "That in the case of out-door paupers the guardians be obliged to make the education of the child a condition of the out-door relief of the parent; and to pay the necessary school fees out of the rates." The Poor Law Board, however, has no power to carry these recommendations into effect.

Mr. Coode entirely dissented from the conclusions of the commission as to the workhouse being extremely pernicious to children, and as to the necessity of a much higher standard of education for pauper children.

The whole of their report, and the whole of the evidence on which that report is based is delusive in this respect, that they view the present state of education in workhouses, and the present state of the poor children there, with reference to a very lofty standard which is completely artificial, and inapplicable to the condition in life of very poor children, and which does not do justice to what had been well done previously under the administration of the poor law, for the practical and useful education of pauper children in and out of workhouses.

They refer the results of the workhouse influence to such a standard of education as is to be found in the best national and British schools, and in district and other advanced schools under the inspection of the Privy Council, all of which are, or may be, very appropriate for certain kinds of the population, but have no practical relation to the state of the population in other parts of the country, and appear to me to be by no means feasible plans for the education of the indigent poor.

A larger number of paupers return to the workhouse from those who have been educated in workhouse schools than from those who have been educated elsewhere. Miss Carpenter said that there was in such schools a great want of family attachment, or sympathy, especially for girls. In her opinion, nothing can be worse than the training of children in metropolitan workhouses. Mr. Coode gave the following evidence to show that education was by no means one of the main objects of the English poor law originally:—The early statutes, in their preambles, show that the great object of the poor law was one of police; the object was to take away such excuse for mendicancy, vagrancy, and crime, as was found in the absolute necessities of men. It was always felt that to leave men destitute of the means to supply their immediate necessities, was at least to extenuate crime, and to beget a compassion very prejudicial to society in the minds of those who were aware that men committed crimes through the pressure of necessity; it was felt proper to take away the plea of necessity for crime, and at the same time to save life and to satisfy the minds of compassionate people that no man perished from immediate want. Education was never thought of as such an immediate, or urgent, or conscious necessity; the want of education was never recognized as being such a source and cause of crime, or such an immediate excuse for crime as poor laws could remove; but children coming under the control of overseers, being constantly destitute, it was judged proper to make provision for their apprenticeship, and for putting them out to work; in fact, to fit them for labour in the station of life nearest to that which they were born to, and which they were likely afterwards to occupy. The relief of actual destitution was pretty well provided for by the organization of parishes, the choice of overseers, and the part which ratepayers were allowed to take in the matter, for the overseers and ratepayers are all in their own persons daily witnesses of what is sufficient for the life, comfort, and respectability of poor people in their neighbourhood. The parishes being, however, found to be too small for the most effective administration, we then had unions of the smaller parishes, and again we observe the same constitutional plan of letting in the ratepayers' influence and judgment in regard to matters as to which they in their localities would be the best judges of what was necessary and fitting. In London we naturally find the guardians, the ratepayers' representatives, who are mostly tradesmen, recognize the use of a little reading, writing, and arithmetic in the children, especially the boys employed in the lowest industries of the neighbourhood, and they are very willing, therefore, to have a schoolmaster in the workhouse who will teach all that; they are willing also to join in larger combinations for district schools; and the tradesmen of other large towns and populous neighbourhoods of diversified business who employ domestic servants see the use there may be in such an education as may be provided in a district school, where all the teaching is of a more artificial kind, and has less relation to the occupations and labour of less populous

and active districts. But in a rural district we find that the guardians, to a large extent, are farmers and small tradesmen, men who recognize but little use of reading, of writing still less, and of ciphering still less, in those whom they want to serve them. Having really comparatively little use for these things themselves, they are only willing to provide for such an humble, plain education as fits the poor to serve them in their locality.

Mr. Farnall said that comparatively little literary education is desirable for pauper children. The education should be mixed; he thought that as much care should be taken of the education of his muscles as of the education of his mind. They ought to go *pari passu*; there is plenty of time for both.

A school is the best place for teaching an industrial occupation; and we find in the manufacturing districts, that the children who have been brought up in agriculture make the best mill hands, on account of their having been out in the open air, and under the sun; their muscles are developed and their spirits are good, and they, alter all, make better workmen than those who have been apprenticed young to the trade.

Other witnesses showed the great value of industrial training.

Hereditary Pauperism.—Upon this subject, Mr. Coode's evidence was as follows, in connection with the projected homes:—Pauperism is not a disease engendered by the air or the soil, and that the nosological comparison, though very striking, is only strikingly untrue, and disproved by all the facts afterwards known to the gentleman himself who first made it. Everybody who knows anything of the matter knows that before 1834 pauperism was growing rapidly, and in some districts had nearly consumed the net rental of the land. Everybody also knows that the mass of curable pauperism has been got rid of—and this, of course, not in the districts where it never prevailed, but in those districts where it did prevail—the “Essex marshes,” of this ingenious but most fallacious comparison; and this cure has been effected by the very medicine thus decried—the workhouse. As you say, the comparison was made “some years ago,” and we have greatly to complain of the unfair artifice, if it is not simple ignorance, which throughout this discussion represents the descriptions which were true “some years ago,” and then served to show the necessity of abandoning the lax and abusive practices then prevalent, as still applicable to the state of things under the amended law. Most demoralising influences then prevailed, making a vast mass of the population paupers. The poor people so made paupers were mostly more sinned against than sinning—were made paupers by the laws that restricted their employment to their parishes, and by the corrupt interests of the employers of their labour; they had little option to make themselves so. The overseers and vestry, and the justices of the peace, made paupers by hundreds of thousands, but it is simply absurd to suppose that one pauper could make another either by his discourse or his example. It is true, that pent up in his parish a man once a pauper was likely to remain so, and to beget pauper children, and so there were here and there instances to be found of families paupers for generations, who had cost hundreds upon hundreds of pounds to their parishes, and the stories of such “hereditary paupers” had at that time a great effect upon opinion, and helped very efficiently to bring about the correction of the abuses which made them possible. There were “hereditary paupers” then, but where are they now? There are none such, but those who are also hereditarily infirm. The last family of hereditary paupers I met with was two years ago, in Staffordshire; a family of here-

ditary cripples, with legs of about fourteen inches in length, and otherwise hereditarily diseased and deformed. The abstraction from the cases of a few hereditary paupers, of a moral disease of "hereditary pauperism," capable of propagating itself by its own virus, is a mere figure of speech, wholly without application to the present state of things; a foundation for no practical policy whatever, economical, or educational, or otherwise. It is as fit to allege the horrors of Druidism as reasons for reforming our reformed religion, as to bring up the abuses of the unamended poor law as reasons for altering the amended law. As to the children brought up or educated in workhouses, undoubtedly, while they are relieved by the poor rates they know they are paupers; they inevitably know the benefits, as they know the disadvantages of pauperism, such as they may be. But how will children brought up in district schools, made at least four times, perhaps ten times as costly, four or ten times as much paupers, more benefited, according to your view, by their pauperism, more strictly classified, less open to diversified influences, be less paupers in fact, or less sensible of the greater benefits you propose to attach to their aggravated pauperism? Your objection is one that I see has been a great deal insisted on by several of the witnesses who have been examined before this committee, and particularly by some ladies; and I noticed also that the chaplain of one of the district schools urged the propriety of some fallacy being put into a child's mind as the first step towards its depauperization. In the first place, although it is proposed to make him a vastly more costly pauper, and if possible for a much longer time, till sixteen years as a minimum, and if possible you are to cut off his access to his friends and relations, his very father and mother, and he is to associate only with a strictly classified class of paupers, yet all this while he is not to know that he is a pauper; he is to be put into a district school, in which the first thing to be done is to disguise from him the fact of what he is; he is not to hear or to know that he is a pauper. And then we are to have a further succession of charitable arrangements, all tending to still greater pauperization; there is to be intensified pauperization in the district school, and when a child who has gone out of the school as a servant, leaves her place, she is to go to a "home." All this is to be done with a view to conceal the fact from the three-piled young pauper, that he or she is a pauper at all. I have a great misgiving of everything proceeding on disguises; I have a great misgiving of everything that is founded on a supposition that you can make a person believe that he is not that which he is. I see no benefit that can result from disguising from young persons in a district school the fact that they are paupers, and allowing them to fancy themselves that which they are not, princesses in disguise, perhaps, as is commonly the case in foundling hospitals, where every girl who does not know what she is, thinks that she is at least a duchess's daughter. It is desired that the actual and incontestable fact of their pauperism should be concealed from them. It would be very well if you were intending to bring up a set of children to be adopted by respectable people, and who were to be introduced into another sphere of life, that they should forget what their origin was, or that it should be disguised from them; something of the kind was supposed to be successful in the education of the janissaries; but I am wholly incredulous as to the benefit to be derived in our state of society from concealing from pauper children the fact that they are paupers. That people will most readily imitate that which they most constantly see, no one will deny; it

cannot be doubted that children in a pauperized parish more easily learn pauperism, as in a parish where the people are more industrious and moral they will more easily acquire industrious and moral habits; but it is wholly a factitious, and, I believe, a hopeless result, that is aimed at when you attempt to disguise from people their status and position, and expect thereby to create in them a new character. Although, therefore, I do very much regret it when I find a parish pauperized, and although I very much regret to find that there is so much bad example, and look upon it as a happy thing where a person is brought up in a parish where there is no pauperism or immorality, I will still say that in my opinion it is a necessary and a proper thing for a child, in order that it may know its real position, and that it may make practical efforts to benefit itself, to know if the truth be so that it is a pauper; and then when it has that knowledge, I think it should have also those facilities which may be legitimately afforded to it consistently with other arrangements, to enable it to remove itself from that class.

PUBLIC BUSINESS.

Report of the Select Committee (of the House of Lords) appointed to consider and report whether, by any Alterations in the Forms and Proceedings of this House, the Despatch of Public Business can be more effectually promoted.

THE committee was appointed on the 8th February, 1861, and nominated the 11th, as follows:—The Lord Chancellor, Lord President, Marquis of Salisbury, Earl of Derby, Earl Stanhope, Earl Grey, Earl of Ellenborough, Viscount Eversley, Lord Rollo, Lord Boyle, Lord Redesdale, Lord Colchester, Lord Somerhill, Lord Wynford, Lord Stanley of Alderley, Lord Chelmsford, Lord Lyveden, Lord Llanover, and Lord Taunton. The committee sat four days, and, after having communicated with the committee of the House of Commons, through Sir Charles Graham, chairman of the committee of that House, and Viscount Eversley, chairman of the Lords' committee, on the 7th May, reported as follows:—

That the committee have met, and considered the subject-matter referred to them.

The committee are of opinion that the forms and practice of this House are well calculated to prevent delay in the passing of bills, or in the transaction of other business. But the House has had frequently to regret that bills have been sent up by the other House of Parliament at so late a period of the session as to render it impossible to give them that full consideration which the public interests require. That this is not a novel complaint is proved by the Standing Order of the 5th May, 1668, and the subsequent proceedings of this House.

It appears to the committee that two modes of remedying this evil may be suggested; either that some portion of the legislation which now originates in the House of Commons should commence in this House, or that some alteration should be made in the forms and proceedings of the other House, which would enable it to devote more time and attention to legislative measures during the early part of the session.

The committee would observe, that independently of financial measures, which begin as of course in the House of Commons, the representative

character of that House renders it expedient that some other classes of important bills should first be discussed there; and should be reviewed rather than proposed in this House. It is obvious that the course of proceeding by which such measures may be so expedited in their passage through the other House, so as to allow of their full consideration by the Lords, and to enable the Commons and this House afterwards to give due attention to any amendment which may have been proposed there must rest entirely with the House of Commons itself. In pursuance, however, of the power given to them, the committee directed their chairman to place himself in communication with the chairman of the committee in the Commons on the business of the House, with a view to facilitate the co-operation of the House of Lords in any arrangements which might require the joint action of the two Houses: they also authorized him to make the following suggestions:—

1st. That it is expedient, in certain cases, to adopt an abridged form of proceeding with reference to bills which shall be again brought before this House after having been passed by it, in the immediately preceding session of the same Parliament.

2nd. That the bills in respect to which such abridged form of proceeding may be adopted, shall be *mutatis mutandis* the same bills which this House may have passed and sent to the other House, and as to which that House may have resolved that there did not remain time for their due consideration in the session in which they were received.

3rd. That on a resolution being moved, that it is expedient again to pass, and to send to the other House for its concurrence, any such bill, the question shall be put whether the House will agree to the same, and on such resolution being agreed to, the bill to which it relates shall be forthwith sent to the other House for its concurrence, without any further question being put or any debate allowed.

The committee also suggested, through the chairman, that it would be expedient that the House of Commons should authorize some one of its members to move as soon as possible the first reading and the printing of all bills sent down from the House of Lords, in conformity with the practice adopted by this House with reference to bills sent up from the House of Commons. These suggestions did not meet with the concurrence of the committee in the House of Commons, for the reasons set forth in their report, which has since been communicated to this House. That report, however, contains certain resolutions agreed to by the committee of the House of Commons, which, if carried out, would, in their opinion, effect “changes in their own forms and proceedings, which they confidently believe will expedite the despatch of business from the first commencement of the session, and thus give to the Lords an early opportunity of considering their measures.” Under those circumstances, and the committee in the Commons having made their report to the House, it appeared to the committee unnecessary to prolong their sittings; and that it would be desirable, before any further steps are taken in the Lords, to watch the effect of the alterations proposed, in case they should receive the sanction of the House of Commons.

THAMES EMBANKMENT COMMISSION.

Report of the Commissioners appointed to inquire into Plans for embanking the River Thames within the Metropolis.

THE commission consisted of Sir William Cubitt, Lord Mayor of London; Major-General Sir Joshua Jebb, K.C.B.; John Thwaites, Esq.; Captain D. Galton, R.E.; Captain Burstal, R.N.; Henry Arthur Hunt, Esq.; and John Robinson McClean Esq.

On the 22nd of July, 1861, the commissioners reported as follows:—

We, the undersigned members of your Majesty's commission—appointed to examine into plans for embanking the river Thames within the metropolis, so as to “provide with the greatest efficiency and economy for the relief of the most crowded streets, by the establishment of a new and spacious thoroughfare, for the improvement of the navigation of the river, and which will afford an opportunity of making the low level sewer without disturbing the Strand or Fleet Street, and also to report upon the cost and means of carrying the same into execution”—now humbly submit to your Majesty the conclusions at which we have arrived, and the recommendations we have agreed to offer.

The nature of the inquiry entrusted to us was made known to the public by advertisement in the newspapers, and more than fifty designs were presented for our consideration; and the authors and other persons interested have had the opportunity of publicly explaining and illustrating their respective views upon the subject.

The main features of the majority of the plans are an embanked roadway on the north side of the river, and the formation of docks with the view to retain all the existing wharves; in others, railways in addition to the roadway and docks have been proposed; whilst in a few, a solid embankment and roadway without either docks or railways have been suggested. Amongst these latter is a plan submitted by Mr. Shields, some of whose suggestions appear to us to afford in a greater degree than any of the other designs, the basis upon which an efficient and economical scheme may be founded. We desire, however, to express our high appreciation of the great engineering skill and ability that has been displayed in many of those designs which contemplated the construction of docks and railways.

The wharf property between Westminster Bridge and the Temple Gardens is for the most part devoted to the coal trade. We find that great facilities are now afforded for the distribution of coal by the new system of unshipping in the docks into railway waggons, and by various depôts on the railways in and near the metropolis. We are of opinion that public convenience no longer necessitates the continuance either of the coal or any other trade in this immediate locality. We, therefore, think that it would not be expedient to construct and maintain docks for the sake of preserving the existing wharves between the points we have mentioned; whilst their removal will greatly simplify the formation of the embankment, and add to the beauty of the river. The wharf property, however, between the Temple Gardens and Blackfriars Bridge cannot, in our opinion, be so treated; and that eastward of Blackfriars Bridge is so important in a commercial point of view, that we do not recommend any interference with it.

Having regard to these and other considerations, we are of opinion that we shall best fulfil your Majesty's instructions and provide for the requirements of the public, by establishing a spacious thoroughfare between Westminster Bridge and Blackfriars Bridge, by means of an embankment and roadway; and that the new thoroughfare thus created should be continued on eastward from Blackfriars Bridge by a new street, according to the line formerly laid down by Mr. Bunning, the city's architect, from the west end of Earl Street across Cannon Street, to the Mansion House. Without such a street no relief whatever would be given to the crowded thoroughfares of Ludgate Hill, St. Paul's Churchyard, and Cheapside.

The line of embankment at Westminster would coincide with the terrace of the Houses of Parliament, and from thence to Blackfriars Bridge would nearly follow the line laid down for the Corporation of the City of London in 1841 by Mr. Walker, Captain Bullock, Mr. Saunders, and Mr. Leach. The general level of the embankment and road would be four feet above Trinity high water. The road would commence at Westminster by an easy descent opposite the Clock Tower, and be continued on, a hundred feet in width, to the eastern boundary of the Temple Gardens; from this point the road would be reduced to seventy feet in width, and carried on a viaduct supported by piers of masonry, rising to the level of Blackfriars Bridge, so constructed as to leave a breadth of water for the convenience of the city gasworks and the adjoining wharves of about seventy or eighty feet. The spaces between the piers under the ascending road would be left available for barges to lie, and afford easy access to the water between this structure and the wharves.

From Westminster Bridge to the eastern boundary of the Temple Gardens the embankment—sustained by a river wall—would be solid in its whole breadth; which breadth opposite Richmond Terrace would be 220 feet from the existing river wall. At Hungerford it would be 320 feet from the existing wharf; at Somerset House about 120 feet; and at the Temple about 220 feet. The plan accompanying this report sets forth the entire scheme.

With respect to the appropriation of the reclaimed land, we would recommend that so much of it as shall be in front of the Crown property—which will be about 120 feet in width at its narrowest part—should be laid out in ornamental gardens for the accommodation of the occupiers of the houses, and that the portion in front of the Temple Gardens, also about 120 feet wide, be placed at the disposal of the Society to be dealt with in a similar manner. The other portions of the reclaimed land may either be kept open for the health and recreation of the public, or be applied to building purposes.

We propose that communications should be made with the intended roadway from Whitehall, opposite the Horse Guards, and also from some of the streets in the Strand, and that a new street should be formed passing through the Savoy to Wellington Street. The frontages on these streets would offer eligible sites for building, as would also the inner frontage of the new road, if it should hereafter be thought fit so to utilize the ground. We, however, feel it our duty to recommend that while economy and utility in laying out and disposing of the ground should be kept in view, endeavours should be made to invest this new and conspicuous work with some elements of interest and beauty.

For the improvement of the navigation, we recommend that the existing

shoals between Waterloo and Westminster Bridges should be removed, due regard being had to the foundations of the former. Also that an uniform low-water channel of six feet in depth at ordinary spring tides, and 500 feet in width from the embankment wall, be secured, and thus the stream be more equalized in velocity. If at any future time any effect should be produced on the river from the diminution of its capacity for tidal water by reason of the embankment, arrangements may be made higher up the river by dredging, or by a tidal reservoir to compensate for the loss. The consideration, however, of this matter would naturally devolve on the conservators of the River Thames.

The embankment and street we have proposed will afford an opportunity of making the low level sewer without disturbing the Strand or Fleet Street, and at the same time facilitate the construction of the sewer eastward of the embankment.

We are not prepared to recommend the construction of an embankment on the Surrey shore at present, but if hereafter it should be thought desirable or necessary to embank any portion of it, the scheme we have proposed for the Middlesex side will not in any way interfere with it.

With regard to that part of our instructions in which we are commanded by your Majesty to "report on the costs and means of carrying the same into execution," we beg to report that we estimate the cost of the land, making compensations, constructing the embankment and roadways, and also acquiring the property in the City for, and forming the new street to the Mansion House, at 1,500,000*l*. This amount, however, would be reduced should it be thought right to dispose of any of the reclaimed land on the bank of the river for building purposes.

Parliament having appropriated the coal dues to provide for the outlay necessary for this great work, it only remains for us to express our opinion as to the "means of carrying the same into execution."

Looking at the magnitude of the work, the important and varied interests, both public and private, which will be affected, and the urgent necessity for its early completion, we are of opinion, that the control and management of the undertaking should be entrusted to a special commission, appointed by your Majesty, in order to ensure the speedy and economical attainment of an object so much needed by the public, and affording so favourable an opportunity for the improvement of the river and adornment of the metropolis.

This report was signed by all the commissioners except John Thwaites, Esq., who made the following protest in a letter to the Lord Mayor:—

While agreeing with the report of my brother commissioners as to the line of embankment to be followed, and the general principles laid down for its construction, I regret to be compelled to protest against certain conclusions at which they have arrived, and am most unwilling to allow any individual difference of opinion to disturb that unanimity which is so desirable in the decisions of a body charged with the preliminary investigation of a work of the highest public importance. But to remain silent in the face of the final recommendation of the report would, I cannot but feel, be to betray as well the interests of the general metropolitan public as those of the board which I have the honour to represent on the commission.

If there be one point which has been affirmed and reaffirmed with unmistakable precision by every one of the several commissions and committees which have investigated this subject, it is, that the Metropolitan Board of

Works is the proper authority for the construction of the Thames embankment.

In the year 1855, previously to the passing of the Metropolis Local Management Act, the select committee of the House of Commons on metropolitan communications, among the foremost of which they placed a Thames embankment, reported their opinion, "That until some authority is established in the metropolis sufficiently comprehensive to give effect to improvements in the communication, laid down on a scale adequate to the existing and prospective wants of the traffic, little can be done by the interposition of the legislature in this matter. They therefore desire to express their satisfaction at the prospect of a Metropolitan Board of Works being shortly established with power to carry out those changes which the existing state of London renders it impossible much longer to postpone."

In 1858, Parliament authorized the Metropolitan Board of Works, for the purposes of the main drainage, "to construct any work through, along, over, or under the bed and soil and banks and shores of the river Thames, making compensation to all persons having any interest in any wharves, jetties, or other property damaged by such works;" and in 1860, the select committee on Thames embankment reported "that the legislature having already entrusted to the Metropolitan Board of Works the main drainage of the metropolis, and armed them with powers to deal with the foreshore of the river in connection therewith, they recommend that the construction of the embankment be also confided to them." I might quote the recorded opinion of members on both sides of the House, as well as that expressed by your lordship from the chair at the outset of the present inquiry, confirmatory of my proposition, which, even unsupported by the overwhelming evidence I have adduced, might be suffered to rest on the simple constitutional principle of the mutual relation of taxation and representation. I am aware of no single instance of a case in which the expenditure of funds derived wholly from local sources has been controlled either by her Majesty's Government or by any other independent body.

The legislature having, after very mature deliberation, constituted a board of works for the metropolis, and to them confided the improvement thereof, and having, by the bill which has just received the royal assent, set apart certain dues, raised wholly within the metropolitan police district, for the purpose of a Thames embankment, it would, I contend, be diametrically opposed to the whole course of our legislative system, as well as to the repeatedly-expressed intention of Parliament, to confide the execution of this work to a Crown-appointed commission having no local connection whatever, and being in no way responsible either to Parliament or to the ratepayers for the expenditure of funds, to which not one farthing has been contributed by the imperial exchequer, but which have been derived solely from the unaided resources of the already heavily-taxed inhabitants of a very limited area.

Indeed, upon a consideration of a far more extensive, more difficult, and more important work, I mean the main drainage of the metropolis, the legislature saw fit to emancipate the board from all control on the part of her Majesty's Government, while the committee of last year, with the experience of the board's past proceedings before them, resolved unanimously that the construction of the Thames embankment be confided to the Metropolitan Board of Works, feeling, as I have every reason to believe,

that the manner in which the board and their officers have designed and partially completed this vast undertaking has fully justified that further confidence which they recommend should be placed in them. With the report of that committee before them, demonstrating the intimate connection between the embankment and the low level sewer, neither of which can be constructed independently of the other, I am at a loss to conceive how the members of the present commission can propose to entrust the execution of the one to a body wholly independent of that to which the legislature has already confided the execution of the other. I cannot but believe that these arguments would have weighed with yourself, as well as with the other members of the commission; and must reiterate my regret that a matter so deeply affecting the board I represent should have been discussed and determined in my absence, and without any notice of an intention even to submit such a point for consideration.

I have treated the question raised in the last paragraph of the report in the first place, because of the magnitude of the interests involved, but there are two other heads on which I differ from my colleagues.

I cannot but consider it inexpedient to single out any one among the eminent engineers who have given evidence for favourable mention to the exclusion of the rest. There were other plans, which, in my opinion, presented points of agreement with the views of the commission equally worthy of mention with that selected, and I consider that justice demands that the commission should either state which among them deserve to be cited for originality of suggestion, or ingenuity of construction, or that they should abstain from naming any one in particular in their report. Moreover, the suggestion of a solid embankment is by no means of such striking novelty as to merit special commendation, seeing that it forms an essential part of Mr. Walker's plan of 1840.

I desire also to record my protest against the omission of the southern embankment from the recommendations of the report. I am aware of a difference of opinion among competent authorities as to the effect of a northern embankment on the south side, and fully concur in the prior necessity of the northern work, both as a means of communication and as inseparable from the construction of the northern low level sewer, but agree with the committee of last year in considering the embankment of the south side as a necessary part of any complete scheme for the improvement of the river and the metropolis. I think, also, that as the numerous and extensive industrial establishments in Lambeth and Southwark will, by means of the coal-tax, be largely contributory to this work, that the claim of these boroughs upon the consideration of the commissioners ought not to be ignored, and an estimate for a southern embankment should, in my opinion, appear in the report.

I have to request that this protest may be minuted, and a copy appended to the report.

To which the chairman of the commission answered as follows:—

DEAR SIR,—Had your protest been a simple exposition of your views on the instructions of the commissioners as to the “means of carrying the embankment into execution,” it would have been appended to the report without comment from the commission; but as you state your “regret that a matter so deeply affecting the Board I represent should have been discussed and determined in my absence, and without any notice of an intention even to submit such a point for consideration,” I am instructed

[417]

to remind you that the subject was discussed and determined on in your presence.

The commissioners met on the 10th of July, specially summoned, to consider the report. It was then, with various suggestions, committed to myself for collation and revision,—was reprinted,—circulated among the commissioners on the 13th for consideration of the additions and amendments,—and finally considered at the meeting on the 16th. At both of these meetings the commissioners had the benefit of your presence. At the meeting on the 16th the paragraph in question was first discussed; to that paragraph you stated your objections, but in which the commissioners did not concur.

With respect to another paragraph of the protest, wherein you say, “I cannot but consider it inexpedient to single out any one among the eminent engineers who have given evidence for favourable mention to the exclusion of the rest,” the commissioners consider that Mr. Sheild’s plan was, in some points, so like the one they have agreed to recommend, that they could not in justice to him pass it by without some mention.

With respect to the third point mentioned in your protest, wherein you say that “I desire also to record my protest against the omission of the southern embankment from the recommendations of the report,” I am instructed to bring to your recollection that you were present at the whole discussion of this point, and appeared to coincide with the paragraph which now stands in the report.

I have to inform you that your protest and this letter will both appear following the report.

BIRTHS, DEATHS, AND MARRIAGES (IRELAND).

Report of the Select Committee to whom the Births, Deaths, and Marriages (Ireland) Bill, and the Registration of Births, &c. (Ireland) Bill, was referred.

THE committee was appointed on the 15th April, 1861, and nominated the 29th, as follows:—Mr. Cardwell, Lord Naas, Mr. Scully, Mr. Whiteside, Mr. Maguire, Mr. George, Mr. Monsell, Mr. Lefroy, Mr. Bagwell, Sir George Bowyer, Sir John Acton, Mr. Longfield, Mr. Waldron, Sir John Arnott, and Mr. Hennessy. The committee examined Mr. George Graham, the Registrar-General of Births, Deaths, and Marriages in England; the Very Rev. B. D. O’Regan, parish priest of Kenturk, Cork; Sir Henry John Brownrigg, C.B.; Mr. Edward Senior, M.P.; and Mr. Henry Wilkie, secretary to the Census Commissioner; and on the 11th July, 1861, the committee reported as follows:—

Your committee have amended the Births, Deaths, and Marriages (Ireland) Bill, as far as regards marriages, and have omitted the portions regarding births and deaths, and have incorporated into the said bill certain portions of the Registration of Births, &c. (Ireland) Bill; which latter bill they have directed him (Mr. Cardwell) to report to the House without amendment.

The following items are gathered from the evidence.

Mr. George Graham gave the following description of the Scotch system of registration:—The chief points in which civil registration of births and deaths in Scotland differs from the practice in England are the following:

[418]

“ That registration of births and deaths is compulsory ; that the number of informants qualified to sign the register is greater ; that informants are compelled under a penalty to attend personally upon the registrar, and state the particulars to be recorded ; that the time for gratuitous registration of births is extended from six weeks to three months ; that where a birth is registered in a parish which is not the usual domicile of the parents, a copy of the entry is transmitted to the registrar of the parish in which the domicile is situated, to be also recorded there ; that a name not given in baptism may be recorded after registration ; that the father of an illegitimate child, if his name is to be recorded, must himself sign the register, together with the mother ; that where baptism takes place without the production of certificate of previous civil registration of birth, the minister is bound to send notice to the registrar ; that the registrar may require the child to be produced for his inspection ; that the registrar is bound to give gratuitously to the informant a certified copy of the entry of the birth ; that provision is made for the registration of persons dying not in houses ; that all registers are made in duplicate, and one duplicate sent once in each year to the Registrar-General instead of a copy ; that medical practitioners must send to the registrar, under a penalty, a written certificate of cause of death ; that copies of registers may be given gratuitously to paupers ; that there are no superintendent registrars ; that the payment to registrars may be increased, or they may be paid by salary ; that sheriffs and sheriffs’ clerks have control over registrars, having power to dismiss them from office ; that the registration of births after three months can be effected only by the authority of the sheriff ; that within a limited period sheriffs are empowered to make a register of ‘ neglected entries ; ’ that sheriffs are empowered to make inquiry upon oath as to errors alleged to be discovered in entries, and to direct a register of ‘ corrected entries ’ to be kept ; that the Registrar-General is to keep a ‘ foreign register ’ relating to births and deaths that have taken place in foreign countries ; that the Registrar-General may make alterations in the form of schedules, and in the amount of fees ; that examiners are appointed, who are allowed to correct clerical errors, without varying them, under the notice of the sheriff ; that examiners are to compare and authenticate the duplicates before they are annually sent to the Registrar-General, recording all erasures and alterations that exist, made by registrars in the course of the previous year ; that examiners sign all entries of births made by authority of the sheriffs when three months have elapsed between the date of birth and date of registration.” I am not able to state whether, in practice, these alterations have been found beneficial, and whether they are approved by the Registrar-General in Scotland. With respect to the question, whether I think medical practitioners as registrars of births and deaths in Ireland preferable to police constables, I have to state that I prefer the medical practitioners. I think that compulsory registration, to have a chance of working well and being made complete, should be as little disagreeable as possible to the public, and that visits to the police would be considered objectionable, and that the lower orders of the population would be less unwilling to state particulars to medical practitioners than to police constables. In most cases of birth and death medical men are consulted and had recourse to ; and they appear to me to have good opportunities of knowing the instances where these events occur. Moreover, they are men who have received a better education than most policemen, and I consider them better qualified to undertake the duty.

Mr. Senior compared the two bills before the committee as follows:—Mr. Cardwell's bill rests the information as to births and deaths on information given in cases of birth by parents; and in cases of death, by the nearest relatives; such information is to be sent to the existing dispensary districts, the registrars being, for the most part, the medical officers of those districts. These registrars are to send copies at stated periods to the superintendent registrar, usually the clerk of the Poor Law Union. Any person, therefore, in want of information as to birth or death, may obtain it by searching the records in the office of the superintendent registrar, in the centre of the union. The registrars, about 700 in number, are specially qualified to obtain and make public the vital statistics of their districts, whilst the Registrar-General will tabularise the whole for general information. As regards the registration of marriages of members of the Established Church, Presbyterians, and Dissenters, the law remains unaltered, but each Roman Catholic clergyman has to report to the superintendent registrar every marriage celebrated by him, which he is by law competent to celebrate. The expense of the local machinery under this bill would appear to be something under 20,000*l.* per annum. Lord Naas's bill throws the registration of births and deaths on the constabulary, and from the large number of sub-districts there can be no doubt that accurate information would be obtained; but register offices are to be provided in 38 districts only, instead of, as proposed in Mr. Cardwell's bill, 163. It substitutes the county for what appears to me the more convenient union boundary. It substitutes the constable, unskilled in vital statistics, for the medical man; direct government; centralised agency for local and popular, except so far as a medical person has to certify the cause of death; an officer, who from the nature of his office ought necessarily to be liable to be frequently changed for a permanent one. It pays the superintendent registrar by salary instead of by fee. The local expenditure (the scale of fees for births and deaths being one-half of those in Mr. Cardwell's bill, and one-half of the salary of the superintendent registrar being charged to the consolidated fund) would appear to be about 12,000*l.* The local charge is placed on the county rate, and the whole will, therefore, fall upon the occupiers, and no part upon the landlords; it is limited to one halfpenny in the pound in the general valuation, but this limit, should the maximum be reached, would allow of a local expenditure of 25,000*l.* It is clear, moreover, that a much larger portion of the expenses would fall on the consolidated fund under this bill than under that of Mr. Cardwell. Lord Naas's bill gives a fee of 2*s.* 6*d.* for each entry in the certified copy of the marriage register to the clergyman. This would amount to about 7,000*l.* per annum, and it is to fall wholly on the consolidated fund; on what principle I am not aware; and I apprehend that medical men will be dissatisfied with having a statutory duty cast upon them, to which is coupled no emolument, while clergymen, for a duty already recognized by statute under the present law as regards the Protestant portion of the community, are now to receive 2*s.* 6*d.* The marriage districts under this bill will ultimately be identical with the births and deaths districts, which are 38 in number. The marriage registration law will remain unaltered as regards the Protestant portion of the community, but Roman Catholic clergymen will be required to keep a register, and to send copies to the superintending registrar.

SLAVE TRADE.

Correspondence with the British Commissioners at Sierra Leone, Havana, the Cape of Good Hope, and Loanda, and Report from British Vice-Admiralty Courts and from British Naval Officers, relating to the Slave Trade, from April 1 to December 31, 1860.

ON the 13th April, 1860, her Majesty's judge at Sierra Leone wrote to Lord John Russell that the Spanish Government wished to nominate Mr. Lesseps, the French vice-consul, to act as Spanish arbitrator, but Lord John Russell answered that such an appointment was not in accordance with the stipulation of the treaty of 1835. During the half year ended the 30th June, 1860, no case came before the mixed courts and no slave was emancipated. Three vessels were captured on suspicion. The slave trade was confined to the same localities as hitherto, viz., Whydah and the territory of the King of Dahomey in the Bight of Benin, and to the Congo and its neighbourhood on the South Coast. On the 1st November, her Majesty's judge informed Lord John Russell that the Monte Videan barque *Constancia* was brought before the mixed court and condemned.

From the Havana, the acting judge wrote on the 1st July, that no case was brought for adjudication before the mixed court during the last six months. Since 1858, 73 vessels were reported to have sailed or to be fitting out for the coast of Africa. Of these 34 were American, 28 Spanish, 5 Mexican, 4 Chilian, 1 French, and 1 was put under Uruguay colours: 27 of these were captured, and 37 were not accounted for; 1 was lost, 9 landed their slaves in Cuba, and 4 were still in Havana harbour. On the 30th September, the commissary judge of Havana wrote to Lord John Russell as follows:—

"The number of slaves landed in Cuba during the first nine months of the present year amounted to 12,060, of whom 771 have been seized by the Spanish authorities. If to this number, 12,060, are added the usual third, 4,020, the three cargoes which were captured by the United States cruisers, 1,433, and the cargo of the schooner which was taken to Nassau, 364, we have a total of 17,877. This statement, however, only includes the cargoes of which we have any positive knowledge, and must not be considered as showing anything like the exact number of slaves which has been actually imported, for it is calculated that at least 30,000 have been landed since the 1st January last. The system which has been adopted of late, of transferring cargoes to coasting craft, at Anguilla and other places of rendezvous, from whence the negroes are taken direct to the wharves of the sugar plantations, and to different parts of the island, renders it extremely difficult to obtain any information whatever. For instance, the vice-consul at Nuevitas reports that over 2,000 slaves have been landed there in small lots from coasting-schooners, but no trace can be found of the vessels which brought them from Africa. Even here, at Havana, the same thing is constantly occurring; but as the slaves are invariably furnished with passes, the local authorities cannot meddle with them.

It will be sufficiently evident, however, that the slave-trade is again in the ascendancy. There never was a time since the celebration of the treaty with Spain when the preparations for the continuance of that hateful traffic were more formidable. There exist throughout the island numerous

joint stock companies, with immense capital, and with extensive ramifications in the United States and in Europe, whose plans are so judiciously arranged that they cannot fail to be successful. Out of the large number of vessels they despatch from hence, from the United States, and from Europe, they can safely count upon running, at least, three in every twelve, or 25 per cent., the proceeds of which will cover the loss of all the rest and leave a handsome profit besides. These transactions, however, are kept very private. There is no such thing as quoting the shares on the exchange; no documents are passed which can in any way compromise the partners, and although it is generally pretty well known what persons are engaged in the slave-trade, it would be quite impossible to establish any proof against them in law. Thus it is that the slavers which are taken by our cruisers on the coast of Africa throw their papers and colours overboard, and it is only occasionally that the vessels can be identified.

Most of the numerous contrivances which are made use of by the slave-traders to deceive her Majesty's officers, and even to cheat each other (for there may be honour among thieves, but there appears to be none amongst these men-stealers), are now very generally known. The substitution of closely fitting iron water-tanks instead of casks is now quite common. Several of the vessels which have lately sailed hence have cleared out openly for Ambriz, St. Thomas, Loanda, or the River Zaire, as if they were bound on a legal voyage. They are provided with a charter-party, and have all their papers apparently in order; but these documents are feigned, and if any boarding officer was to insist upon opening the hatches and comparing the cargo with the clearance, the villany would be at once discovered; in fact, both flag and papers would immediately disappear.

It is greatly to be regretted that the Government of the United States will not come to some understanding with that of Great Britain for the better prevention of the abuse of the American flag. It is true that the United States' gun-boats stationed in these waters have rendered good service, as will be seen by the inclosed return of the slave-vessels they have captured; but could a systematic plan of cruising be arranged, combining the services of our ships with theirs, the slave-trade would be very soon put down. Nor is it alone the flag of the United States which is thus prostituted. I have been informed that the slave-traders now appear to think that there is more safety in that of France, and that it is likely to be most extensively used. The present system of landing the crews of captured slavers on the coast of Africa is extremely objectionable. If some course could be adopted by which all those who are found on board such vessels could be severely punished, it would certainly deter others from engaging in such expeditions. Surely the fact of their being taken in a vessel without nationality of any kind should be held sufficient to subject them to be dealt with as outlaws.

As regards the obligation Spain is under of putting an end to the slave-trade, it is to be feared that no faith can be put in her assurance of a sincere wish to fulfil that solemn engagement. She has been urged over and over again to do so; but it is now a quarter of a century since the treaty between Great Britain and Spain for the suppression of the slave-trade was signed, and yet the detestable traffic flourishes more briskly than ever. Certainly it is now time for Spain to retrieve the past, to show that she is able and willing to fulfil her treaty obligation, and to earn for herself a place in the councils of the great powers of Europe. The present captain-general, Serrano, appears really desirous of doing something

towards checking the slave-trade, and has issued a circular to the lieutenant-governors in the island, holding them and their subordinates personally responsible for any breach of the treaty which may occur in their jurisdictions. His Excellency has assured me that he is determined to remove any officer in whose district a landing of slaves takes place, who cannot show that he has exerted himself to prevent it, and that he will subject him to a court-martial should there be reason to suspect any collusion with the slave-traders. He has already removed the lieutenant-governors of Cardenas, Sagua, Trinidad, and Bahia Honda, for dereliction of duty in this respect, and the last named is now under trial for alleged participation of bribes. His Excellency complains bitterly of the want of suitable cruizers, and says that he has applied to Madrid for ten steam gun-boats. If these are supplied, and if the law is altered which prevents the seizure of freshly imported Africans anywhere but afloat, or in the act of landing, the Spanish authorities here will no longer have any excuse for not putting down the slave-trade.

The prosperity of Cuba, whose annual production now reaches about 20,000,000*l.*, must naturally depend in a great measure upon the supply of labour in the colony. The coloured population in the island is estimated at about 550,000, of whom 400,000 are slaves. At a moderate rate of mortality, say 10 per cent., less 2 per cent. for reproduction, it requires 32,000 labouring hands to make up the annual deficiency, without taking into consideration the useless from age and infirmity, and the requirements for extended cultivation. It is very evident, that unless this deficiency was made up by fresh supplies from Africa, slavery in Cuba would die out of itself in a very few years. The question of labour then, is one of vital importance for the island, and is at present occupying the serious attention of the Government and of the planters. The importation of Chinese colonists has been declared free, under certain regulations, which have been framed with the view of protecting the coolie from improper treatment, both on the passage and during his apprenticeship here.

Up to the present date, the total number of Chinese who have been landed in Cuba amounts to 49,730 males and 52 females, of whom it is estimated that there are now about 34,000 surviving. They are much addicted to the use of opium and to gambling, but the planters generally speak well of them. They are good labourers, are far superior in intelligence to the African, make excellent domestics, and appear to be a very industrious and money-making class. Of those who have completed their contracts, only a very few have returned to China; indeed, they are very much better off here, and if an adequate proportion of women was allowed to be shipped, there is little doubt but that the Chinese would soon supersede the negro, and that in course of time free labour would take the place of slavery in this island, without any of the calamitous consequences which attended the emancipation of the slaves in our own colonies. The intercourse between the Chinese and the negroes has had a striking effect upon the bearing of the latter. They are no longer as respectful to the whites as formerly, so much so that the Government has been obliged to take measure to repress their excesses and their insolence.

About a year ago, a person of the name of Byrne, calling himself a naturalized French citizen, and representing himself as having contracted with the French Government for supplying New Caledonia with 10,000 colonists from other islands in the Pacific, came here with the object of

making similar contracts, and afterwards went to Madrid to lay his plans before the Spanish Government. I am not aware of what success he met with, but I understand that the captain-general has very recently granted leave to Messrs. Canet and Garvalena, and the Brothers Cabarga, of this place, to import 5,000 negroes from Polynesia. I need scarcely say that this scheme is nothing else than the slave-trade under another denomination. The traffic in Yucatan Indians is still carried on to a considerable extent. They are smuggled in chiefly by fishing-smacks belonging to Don Francisco Marty, and are sold on contracts for eight years, under conditions very similar to those of the Chinese. They are a quiet, hard-working race, and are principally engaged as house-servants. The price of labour has risen very much within a few years, as high as 32 dollars per month, including food, medical attendance, and clothing, being paid for negroes on the plantations during crop time, whilst servants' wages have also advanced considerably. A good field hand, which could have been bought in 1845 for 600 dollars, is now worth 1,200 dollars, and even newly landed negroes, or Bozals, as they are called, fetch from 800 to 900 dollars. When these prices are compared with the cost of the African in his native land, and the expense of bringing him here, the enormous profits of the slave-trade are at once apparent; and with such a demand for labour in Cuba, and such strong inducements for the continuance of the importation of slaves, it will require the most strenuous efforts to destroy a traffic which is condemned by the greater part of the civilized nations of the world."

From the Cape of Good Hope her Majesty's commissioners gave account of three slave vessels adjudicated in the vice-admiralty court of that colony before January, 1860, but none between that day and the 30th June. Reports were current to the effect that the traffic was carried on to a great extent. During September and October two vessels had been brought in as prizes.

From Loanda her commissioners informed that several vessels had been captured. Some difficulty had arisen respecting the detention of the Portuguese launch *Barboleta*. Writing on the condition of the slave-trade, the commissioner said,—

"One of the arguments most prominently advanced in support of the system of enslaving the Africans is that their intellectual faculties are of an inferior order, that they are, in fact, an inferior race of beings; and that, inasmuch as their own indolence and apathy shows that they are indifferent to the blessings they would derive from their freedom, it is useless to teach them the habits of civilized life, and impolitic to grant them their liberty. Parties who hold these views no doubt, far from aiding to promote the moral and intellectual culture of the Africans, consider it more expedient that they should be allowed to remain in the present state of ignorance and barbarity.

I believe, my lord, that the African character is susceptible of improvement and civilization in a degree little inferior to that of any race of men similarly circumstanced; but it is obviously only when slavery and the slave-trade shall have been totally eradicated from amongst them that any marked progress can be looked for, or that this country can be expected to make its natural advances in civilization. Teach the natives of Africa the benefits and blessings of freedom, and they will soon not only aspire to it, but make an effort to obtain it. Teach them the truths of Christianity, give a steady impulse to habits of peaceful commerce and industry amongst

them, and you will sap the foundations of this great evil; but leave them in the deplorable state of darkness and ignorance in which they now are, and they will be for ever held in subjection and degradation to supply the means of profit and labour to their European task-masters."

On the 25th July, Commodore Edmonstone, of the *Arrogant*, sent the following account of the localities where the slave-trade is carried on:—

North Division.—"The traffic in slaves is considerable, but carried on in a small way. Sierra Leone and its neighbourhood I consider as one of the principal places in this division, and the source from whence slaves are procured are the numerous prisoners that are taken in the frequent wars that occur amongst the different tribes. All captives are taken to the Pongas and Nunez (which are not slave-feeding countries) for exportation in exchange for cattle and other articles for barter: in fact, the slave is a coin in this part of the country. Although we have not as yet been able to trace any actual suspicious vessel from the Pongas there is little doubt but that slaves are exported from that river, and I am of opinion the small American brigantines, that carry on a considerable trade in hides, would not be averse to taking a cargo of slaves whenever an opportunity should offer. Mrs. Lightbourne and a Mr. Faber have baracoons in the Rio Pongas, where the slaves are kept waiting a favourable opportunity for shipments, but their locality cannot be ascertained, as they are continually shifted. I have issued particular instructions to the senior officer that the river is to be watched as narrowly as possible. Domestic slavery is almost general in this division, there being scarcely a person of any importance but has some interest in it.

Bights Division.—The slave-trade is confined principally to the Whydah country subject to Dahomey; Aghwey, Jackin, Delmina, Great and Little Popoe, being the chief places of shipment. Now that the troops have been removed from Quitta Fort, Tellah Coffee is certain to become once more a great export for slaves, especially as the whole of the neighbouring chiefs are at war. No more than twelve miles from Lagos there is a slave market well supplied by those taken as prisoners. I feel confident that the slave-trade in this division is greatly on the increase, two cargoes having been reported to me as being shipped on the same day.

South Division.—Slave trade is almost general on this part of the station; and as the price of negroes is considerably less than anywhere else, being about 25 dollars per head, the majority of vessels, of course, proceed south. Point Piedras, Mayumba, Banda Point, Black Point, Londano, Congo, and Mecula, are the principal shipping-places, all of them having baracoons more or less. Mecula is the only place on the south of the Congo where the traffic in slaves is at all considerable. It will be noticed that in proportion as legal commerce increases so this diabolical trade diminishes, therefore the chief aim out here is to encourage the growth of legitimate commerce, which is the only sure way of effectually putting an end to it. In my recent visit to the Old Calabar and Cameroons I was happy to see that the natives were carrying on an extensive traffic in palm oil with our merchants. The only description of slavery known in these parts is entirely domestic. To avoid any collisions with the United States' men-of-war I have issued positive instructions to our cruisers to be very careful in their conduct when boarding American vessels for the purpose of proving their nationality; also that they are invariably to ask permission before proceeding on board any of their vessels.

In conclusion, I have to draw your attention to the very limited squadron at my disposal, which is quite inadequate for the requirements of the service, especially as the services of one vessel will be altogether required for the Niger expedition, and the slave-trade is supposed to be increasing. The following is the manner in which they are distributed; and I have also stated against each division what I think is the least number of vessels absolutely necessary for the satisfactory performance of the duties required. *North Division.*—*Prometheus, Lynx.* Three vessels always required. *Dover*, in the Gambia, being defective, the service of one of the above cruisers is required there frequently. *Right Division.*—*Alecto, Triton, Brune* (inside Lagos Bar). Four vessels always required in addition to *Brune.* *South Division.*—*Archer, Falcon, Sharpshooter, Spitfire.* Six vessels always required."

SLAVE TRADE.

Correspondence with British Ministers and Agents in Foreign Countries, and with Foreign Ministers in England, relating to the Slave Trade, from April 1 to December 31, 1860.

On the 9th March, consul Brand, of Lagos, informed Lord John Russell that the King of Dahomey threatened an attack on Abbeskuta, and that he had been asked to render personal and material assistance, which he deemed desirable to grant. On the 9th April, he related that the danger of an attack had been averted, but that the cause of humanity, peaceful commerce, and Christian civilization loudly demanded that some restraint be put on the power and influence of this barbarian chief, who annually caused confusion and bloodshed in the interior, whilst he protected the slave dealer and harassed the legal trader on the coast. On the 16th April, the consul sent particulars of steps taken by him with the chiefs of Hadan and the Aré of Ijaye, to prevent a collision. On the 14th May, he reported that he had interfered in order to stop the barbarous custom of destroying people charged with the imaginary crime of witchcraft. The exports from Lagos from the 1st January to the 31st December, 1860, had been 3,413 tons palm and nut oil, 3,9601 lbs. shea butter; 15,110 lbs. ivory, and 215,000 lbs. cotton.

From Brazil, Mr. Christie reported that since the abolition of the slave-trade, the European importation had greatly increased. In 1857, the total number of European immigrants was 14,650; in 1858, it was 18,999; and in 1859, 19,695. On the 24th September, he informed Lord John Russell that the following project of law had been proposed by a senator, but that it did not pass. This project of law comprised four proposals:—1. To abolish public sales by auction of slaves. 2. To prohibit in the sale of slaves the separation of husband from wife, and of children under age from their parents. 3. In cases of decease of owners of slaves, where there are no heirs in direct line, either parents or children, and where creditors are otherwise fully secured, to authorize the manumission of slaves, if they can purchase their freedom at a price fixed by a magistrate. 4. To encourage the sale of slaves for agricultural employment in the country, by exempting sales for such purpose from the tax on sales; the object of these being to diminish

the number of slaves in the cities, and to promote the employment of free men in domestic service. The consideration of this bill was long postponed by the Senate under the pressure of other business, and when at last it came on for discussion, all the clauses were rejected except the first, which prohibited public sales of slaves. The bill having been thus mutilated was not proceeded with.

France.—On the 11th July, 1860, Lord John Russell sent a despatch to Earl Cowley, Lord Lyons, Sir A. Magenis and Mr. Edwardes, wishing them to call the attention of the Governments to whom they were accredited to the present condition of the slave-trade, proposing measures for the final extinction of the slave-trade, as follows:—

1st. A systematic plan of cruising on the Coast of Cuba by the vessels of Great Britain, Spain, and the United States.

2nd. Laws of registration and inspection in the Island of Cuba, by which the employment of slaves, imported contrary to law, might be detected by Spanish authorities.

3rd. A plan of emigration from China, regulated by the agents of European nations in conjunction with the Chinese authorities.

He called also their attention to the following passage in the message of the President of the United States, of May:

“It is truly lamentable, that Great Britain and the United States should be obliged to expend such a vast amount of blood and treasure for the suppression of the African slave-trade, and this, when the only portions of the civilized world where it is tolerated and encouraged are the Spanish Islands of Cuba and Puerto Rico.”

Netherlands.—On the 9th May, Lord Napier reported that measures had been introduced to the Government, for the abolition of negro slavery in the American and West Indian colonies. The first bill provides for the abolition of slavery in the colony of Surinam; the second abrogates the same institution in the Islands of Curaçoa, Bonaere, Aruba, S. Eustatius, and Laba; the third completes the work of emancipation in the Netherland portion of St. Martin.

All three recognize the principle of indemnity to the slave proprietors, and impose upon the liberated negro the obligation of self-supporting and profitable labour. The emancipation will be general and summary. It will take effect within six months after the promulgation of the new law in the several colonies. The amount of compensation to be awarded is regulated first by the colony itself, for in some colonies the value of negro labour is higher than in others, and secondly in Surinam by the character of labour to which the slave is legally appropriated, for the sugar plantation slave is rated higher than the negro employed in domestic or miscellaneous work, while the latter is rated above the slave held upon coffee, cocoa, and cotton plantations, or on woodlands. The compensation is to be awarded at so much per head over all, without distinguishing the various categories of sex and age.

The estimate is higher in Surinam, than in the West Indian Islands. The highest compensation to be awarded in Surinam for the most valuable class of field hands is 450 florins, or 38*l.* 9*s.* per head; the lowest in the islands is 200 florins, or 17*l.* 1*s.* 10*d.* The money is to be paid, one-third on the spot in local currency, and two-thirds by bills on the Colonial Department in the Netherlands payable thirty days after sight, except in the smaller islands, where the indemnity will be liquidated in specie.

[427]

The whole number of slaves to be emancipated and redeemed is estimated at 46,093, exclusive of the negroes on the Dutch portion of St. Martin, whose number is not specified. The whole sum to be paid from the treasury of the mother country for this object is 16,144,450 florins, or 1,379,867*l.* 10*s.* 5*d.*

In their new condition, the emancipated negroes will be recognized as freemen enjoying the benefits, and subject to the restrictions of the common laws of the colony they inhabit, save where they are specifically affected by regulations to be devised for their particular welfare, regulations which are to be framed by the local authorities, with the assent of the Home Government, which will be promulgated by royal authority, though communicated to the states general, and which will be temporary in their character. The chief apprehension of the Netherlands Government, and one partly justified by experience elsewhere, is that the negro will abstain from regular labour, and thus degrade himself, and impoverish the colony he inhabits. It is, therefore, stringently asserted in the laws referred to, that the free negroes will be made responsible for their own support, for the maintenance and education of their offspring, and for the sustenance of the widows, orphans, aged and sick of their class. Mendicity and vagrancy will be severely punished. The emancipated negroes will be held to complete the work of the current year, or the plantations to which they belong, with reasonable wages.

The Government will take measures with the view of keeping the negroes on the grounds on which they are now settled, and binding them by temporary labour contracts to their previous masters. Where this is not practicable, they will be transported elsewhere and provided with employers, or put out to service of various kinds, still under the control and protection of the colonial authorities. Where the negroes cannot be conveniently appropriated for plantation labour, or bound to individual service, they may be formed into separate "corporations," at the discretion of the Colonial Government, and subject to its orders. Finally, the emancipated negroes will be held liable to service for the public peace and defence, and for the construction of public works on the demands of the state for competent remuneration.

BARRACKS AND HOSPITALS.

General Report of the Commission appointed for improving the Sanitary Condition of Barracks and Military Hospitals in the United Kingdom.

THE commission was issued in 1857, and the report was delivered in 1861. The commissioners were Dr. Sutherland, Dr. Burrell, and Captain Douglas Galton. The total number of barracks to which this inquiry referred amounts to 243, and of hospitals to 167, distributed throughout the United Kingdom in the following proportions:—In England, 117 barracks and 76 hospitals; in Scotland, 20 barracks and 15 hospitals; in Ireland, 106 barracks and 76 hospitals. The commissioners examined first the position and neighbourhood of barracks, the construction of barracks, the cubic space per man in barracks, the state of ventilation and warming of barracks, the state of water supply, barrack drainage, latrines, urinals, and cleansing; the condition of ablution for male accommodation, wash-houses, and cook-houses;

and the question of accommodation for married non-commissioned officers and soldiers, workshops, libraries, schools, day-rooms, &c. Having inquired upon all these points, and ascertained the defects which exist in barracks likely to operate injuriously on the health of the soldier, the commissioners summed up as follows :—

1. *Defects in Site.*—Barracks occupying sites exposed to marsh malaria, or enclosed more or less among the dwellings of the civil population, whereby their inmates are exposed to the influence of impure air arising from neglect of cleanliness, nuisances, defective drainage, and obstructed external ventilation incident to the vicinity.

2. *Defects in Plan.*—Generally a want of uniformity of plan and an imperfect and irregular recognition of the necessity of arranging the buildings so as to secure free external ventilation and sunlight to as large an extent as possible over the whole external surface of the barracks; consequent want of simplicity of plan. Barracks erected either close to the enclosure walls, or so near the walls as to leave a space between the barrack and the wall too narrow for cleanliness and health. Barracks built round closed squares or courts, or in partial squares with deep closed angles.

3. *Defects in Construction.*—Agglomerating too large a number of men under one roof, and piling too many floors of building one over the other. Back to back barrack rooms with windows only on one side, an arrangement by which the ventilation of the rooms is impeded. The use of corridors for access, covering one face of the building, leading to a similar obstruction to the room ventilation. The use of internal corridors, dark and without sufficient ventilation, in cavalry barracks, with the rooms opening right and left out of these corridors, an arrangement by which the rooms have windows on one side only, while the ventilation of all the rooms communicates by means of the corridors. Constructing cavalry barrack rooms over stables, whereby the air in them is rendered foul and offensive. Deficiency of light in such cavalry barracks, and in a number of infantry barracks, from defective position of windows, or deficient window space. Doors placed close to the fire-place, by which the rooms are deprived of the influence of the doors in ventilating them, and the firesides are rendered uncomfortable to the men. Obstructing the light and ventilation of rooms by placing sergeants' bunks in them, from deficiency of accommodation for non-commissioned officers. Obstructing the light and ventilation of barrack rooms by boxing off staircases from the rooms, proper staircases not having been provided in the construction. Ceilings too low in proportion to the superficial area of the floor. Basements constructed for and occupied as barrack rooms. Barrack rooms constructed with dark and unventilated corners. Buildings converted into barracks, although not originally intended for barracks, and not adapted for such purposes from their position or construction, or both.

4. *Deficient Cubic Space in Barrack-rooms.*—No systematic recognition of the relation of cubic space to ventilation, warming, and health. Hence great diversity of practice in the amount per man allotted in different barracks; in nearly all barrack rooms the cubic space allowed being much too small for health, and in many rooms the overcrowding being excessive.

Misappropriation of barrack rooms leading to the cubic space being reduced below that fixed by regulation. Placing a larger number of men in barracks than the regulation number, so as to lead to additional overcrowding in rooms already overcrowded.

5. *Deficient Ventilation.*—A total want of any proper systematic method

of ventilation. No means of ventilation whatever in the majority of barracks, except from the occasional opening of doors and windows, and by the fire-places. Means for renewing the air in the other barracks, with the sole exception of those provided in a few rooms in three barracks, totally inadequate for purposes of health, being either erroneous in principle, or inefficient in operation. Want of ventilation in barrack stairs and passages. Want of ventilation in non-commissioned officers' rooms, libraries, reading rooms, and school rooms. Ventilation of stables under men's rooms, not sufficient to preserve the air in the rooms above from stable effluvia. Want of ventilation of guard rooms. Deficient ventilation of lock-up rooms and prison cells. Want of ventilation in canteen tap-rooms and non-commissioned officers' rooms, and in many cook-houses, wash-houses, ablution rooms, &c. General want of ventilation in workshops.

6. *Defects in Warming.*—Barrack room grates constructed on a pattern not admitting of economy of fuel, generally so placed as to permit most of the heat to pass up the chimney, and their heating power insufficient for the combined purposes of warming and ventilation.

7. *Defects in Water Supply.*—An almost universal adoption of shallow wells dug in the substrata of the barrack yards, often at no great distance from stables, privies, cess-pits, ash-pits, and dung-heaps, whereby in porous soils the water is liable to contract impurity. The use of underground tanks for storage, by which the water is also liable to impurity, besides the supply for barrack purposes being intermittent and dependent on periodical hand labour.

8. *Defects in Drainage.*—Surface drainage close to barrack rooms, especially in cavalry barracks, rendered difficult from want of a smooth surface arising from the use of boulder stone pavement. Guttering often bad from the same circumstance. Surface drainage sometimes offensive from defects in them, and from open gully grates too close to the barracks. Surface drainage deficient in many parade and exercising grounds. Absence of latrine drainage in the great majority of barracks, and the use of open privies and cess-pits, in consequence of this want. The present system tending to the saturation of the ground with filth, endangering the purity of the wells, and polluting the atmosphere within the barrack enclosure, and often in the immediate vicinity of barrack rooms. Defective construction of urinals. Defective drainage in many wash-houses.

9. *Defects of Cleansing.*—The use of dung-pits and ash-pits in barracks where, on account of want of space, they must of necessity pollute the air. Defective construction and want of drainage of both classes of receptacles, whereby they accumulate water and filth, sometimes to a depth of several feet. Surface cleansing of cavalry barracks near the stables, and the surface cleansing of the stables themselves, often deficient on account of the nature and condition of the paving. Lime-washing of the interior of barracks performed at intervals of time too great for maintaining the healthiness of the rooms.

10. *Defects in Cook-houses.*—With a very few exceptions, the absence of any means of cooking in barrack cook-houses except boiling. Want of economy in fuel in using the existing boilers. In a few barracks cook-houses placed under barrack rooms, thereby occupying space required for accommodating men, and rendering the rooms above unhealthy from heat and smell. Want of proper cook-houses in one or two instances.

11. *Defects in Ablution-rooms.*—In many instances want of certain con-

veniences, such as gratings, to stand on while washing, pegs for clothes, forms, and beads for the margin of the ablution tables, to prevent the water dashing over on the men. Defective position of some ablution rooms, either too far from the men's rooms, or so placed as to diffuse damp through some rooms. General want of means of bathing.

12. *Defects in Wash-houses.*—Want of proper tubs for washing. No means of drying or getting-up linen, leading, as consequences, to risk to the men's health from damp linen. Very few proper laundries yet established.

13. *Defects in Quarters for Married Non-commissioned Officers and Soldiers.*—General deficiency of this class of accommodation except in a few recent instances. Barrack rooms often misappropriated for the purpose, so as to reduce the men's accommodation. Sergeants' bunks placed in barrack rooms, or married people sleeping in rooms with the men, on account of deficiency of proper married quarters.

14. *Defects in Libraries, Reading-rooms, and School-rooms.*—Misappropriation of barrack rooms for such purposes. Deficient ventilation and warming of rooms. Quarters for librarians and teachers deficient and often very defective.

15. *Defects in Workshops.*—General deficiency in this class of accommodation, and frequent misappropriation of men's rooms for the purpose. Workshops destitute of ventilation. Some of them in basements and attics quite unfit for human occupation.

16. *Defects in Guard-rooms, &c.*—Overcrowding and defective ventilation of guard-rooms, lock-up rooms, and many provost establishments. Frequent want of shelter for mustering guards in wet weather. Want of proper latrines, urinals, and ablution accommodation for many guard-rooms.

17. *Defects in Canteens.*—Storage and other accommodation often deficient. Some rooms without fire-places. No ventilation in non-commissioned officers' rooms and tap-rooms.

18. *General Deficiencies.*—No day rooms for the men. Want of drill sheds except in a few barracks. Frequent deficiency of store rooms leading to misappropriation of men's rooms. Frequent deficiency of cleaning sheds. Occasional deficiency of non-commissioned officers' mess-rooms and kitchens, leading to misappropriation to supply them.

The commissioners next proceeded to state what works and measures of a sanitary kind they found it necessary to recommend for the purpose of remedying the defects described in the preceding section as follows:—

Diminution of overcrowding; improvements in ventilation, warming, and lighting; improvements in water supply, drainage, latrines, urinals, and cleansing; improvements in ablution and bath-rooms; improvements in cook-houses; improvements in wash-houses.

Ventilation and diminution of overcrowding were obviously the most urgent and important to health of all the improvements they had recommended. The first could be commenced with at once; but to reduce the inmates of barrack rooms to such an extent as to afford 600 cubic feet per man, was simply impracticable until the barrack accommodation could be extended. To meet the emergency arising from deficient accommodation as far as possible, the Secretary of State issued a circular on the 1st October, 1858, in which, after reciting the recommendation of the royal commission on the subject of cubic space, namely, 600 cubic feet per man in barracks, 1,200 cubic feet per man in hospitals in temperate climates, and 1,500 cubic feet in hospitals in tropical climates, he directed that, "in future, therefore,

whenever from but partial occupation of a barrack or hospital it be possible, by spreading the men more generally throughout the barracks to allot to each man a greater cubical space than is now afforded, such extension is to be permitted to the extent necessary to afford the cubical space as above laid down." This circular, no doubt, is an improvement on past practice, and, if rigidly followed, would enable in many cases a larger amount of space to be given than at present. It could be applied easily during summer and in temperate weather, but in winter it would hardly be applicable, because every inmate removed from a barrack room takes his coal ration with him; and hence without more fuel or improved methods of such as we have recommended, more cubic space would necessarily imply colder rooms.

Another method of giving effect to the recommendation of the royal commission has been proposed, which, if carried out, would defeat the very object which the commission had in view. It has been proposed to calculate the space per man, not on the beds in the room, but on the chance occupation. That is, suppose a room stands on the construction as a 10-men room, and that two men are, on an average, out of it on duty, the proposal is to give 600 cubic feet per man to the remaining 8 men, if the room will afford it. It hence would follow that $\frac{8 \times 600}{10}$ would give 480 cubic feet per

man for 10 men as the regulation accommodation. Now, it so happens that this 480 cubic feet for 10 men, raised to 600 for 8 men, by 2 men being on duty, is the identical method of apportioning space hitherto in use, which has been one cause of the sickness and mortality of the army, and which the royal commission wished to put an end to. We object to this proceeding in the most decided manner. The number of men painted on the door ought to indicate the number of beds in the room, at 600 cubic feet each, otherwise the overcrowding will continue as at present. The only temporary remedy for overcrowding which can meet the requirements of the case is providing huts or tents, and the only permanent remedy is providing more barrack accommodation.

Next in importance to reduction of overcrowding and improved ventilation we ranked improved drainage, improved cooking, and washing arrangements, baths, &c. But large works of construction, such as barrack extension, involving great outlay, a cost dependent on local circumstances, which cannot hastily be ascertained, and much time in their execution, we have not included in our estimates, for obvious reasons.

The grants of money for sanitary improvements were apportioned by the Secretary of State on these principles, and the works were proceeded with in the order and manner recommended by us.

The general position of barracks was shown to be as follows:—The number of barrack rooms inspected was 5,339; and at the present regulation this supplied room for 75,801 men; but the available accommodation, at 600 cubic feet per man, was only 53,806, leaving 21,995 cubic feet of additional barrack accommodation to be supplied. Next, as to the state of ventilation, the commissioners found that 5,339 rooms wanted ventilation by shafts and inlets, all the rooms wanted ventilation by Arnott's valves; nearly all wanted ventilation—school-rooms, library, reading-rooms, and workshops; nearly all wanted ventilation in guard-rooms by shafts and inlets; all wanted ventilation of canteens, ventilation of barrack passages and staircases, ventilation of stables under barrack rooms by shafts; and all barrack rooms and guard-rooms, libraries, reading-rooms, and some school-rooms wanted

remodelled grates for warming part of the air admitted. The commissioners found, moreover, that 135 barracks required the abolition of cess-pits and privies, drainage, and construction of water latrines and urinals; 20 wanted other improvements in latrines; 40 wanted other improved water supply, where such improved supply may be easily attainable; 124 wanted improvements in ablution rooms; 123 wanted bathing accommodation; 110 wanted means of drying linen in women's wash-houses, fixed tubs, &c.; 22 wanted other improvements in wash-houses; 108 wanted roasting ovens in cook-houses; 53 improvements in cleansing, including manure heaps, ash-pits, &c.; 23 improvements in surface drainage; 6 substituting boarded floors for flagging or asphalt; 51 introducing gas, with ventilated gas burners, where gas is easily obtainable; and 18 opening additional windows. The commissioners proceeded as follows:—

The foul air of overcrowded sleeping rooms and guard rooms has been treated as if it were a thing of no importance to health. Bad drainage, cesspits, manure pits, and ashpits, occasioning nuisance in many barrack rooms, and polluting the subsoil of the barrack enclosure with filth even to the extent of endangering or damaging the purity of wells, exist to a greater or less extent in nearly all barracks at the present time. With very few exceptions there were no means of cooking except the old regulation boiler at the time we began our work. There were hardly any baths. There were no means in wet or damp weather of drying the soldiers' linen washed in the defective barrack wash-houses, except the barrack room fire, although good laundries had been provided in connection with married quarters in the very few barracks where these quarters have been recently erected. Into very few barracks had gas been introduced, in comparison with the number of barracks into which, although at hand, it had not been introduced.

The result of our whole examination and inquiry has been to substantiate the general statements contained in the report of the Royal Commission on the Sanitary State of the Army, as to the very defective sanitary condition of barracks, and the influence of such defects in deteriorating the soldier's health and increasing his mortality.

Unfortunately, the amount of money required to remedy the defects is very large, far more so than could have been foreseen, because such an entire ignoring of the necessity of sanitary works could never have been anticipated; but, on the other hand, it ought not to be forgotten that these structural deficiencies ought not to have existed at all in any barrack, or, indeed, in any building intended for human habitation. It will undoubtedly cost more to remedy the evils now than it would have cost to have prevented them in the first instance; but we feel perfect confidence in stating that whatever the cost of carrying out sanitary improvements in barracks and hospitals may be—for both classes of buildings must be considered together—it will be money well laid out, for it will not only lead to improved health and comfort of the soldier, but to general improved efficiency in the army.

The state of the hospital accommodation was summed up by the commissioners as follows:—There were 788 wards, the present regulation number of feet beds was 6,732, the number of beds at 1,200 cubic feet per bed would be 3,856, leaving a deficiency in bed space of 2,876. 785 wards, ventilation of wards; 57 ventilation of staircases; 40 hospitals wanted ventilation of kitchens, and all wanted ventilation in sergeants' rooms; 28

[433]

hospitals wanted water supply; 77 baths; 70 lavatories; 49 improved drainage; 56 water-closets; 49 improved latrines; 16 urinals; 45 abolition of cess-pits; 36 abolition of ash-pits; 37 improved cooking apparatus; 23 improved wash-houses; 19 increased window space; 35 gas; and 9 exercising ground.

The commissioners next proceeded to lay down the sanitary principles of camp arrangement and construction as follows:—

The two most obvious and important principles to be kept in view in forming a camp are—

1st. To select the best ground obtainable, and at the greatest distance from all sources of malaria. 2nd. To adopt suitable sanitary precautions in constructing and arranging the accommodation.

Selection of Site.—The worst ground for a camp is clay soil, or a clay subsoil coming near the surface. Such sites should always if possible be avoided. They are retentive of water, and keep the atmosphere over them damp, or in a malarial condition. A few trial holes dug at different points of the ground will show whether the subsoil is dry or otherwise. Ground immediately at the foot of a slope is apt to be damp and unhealthy, on account of receiving water from the higher levels. Ground of this nature, occupying the angle between hill ranges and the lower flat country, or situated in deep narrow valleys, often predisposes its occupants, even in temperate climates, to epidemic diseases. In tropical climates these angles and gorges are often covered with dense unhealthy vegetation. High positions exposed to winds blowing over low marshy ground, miles away, are in certain climates unsafe, on account of fevers. Indeed it sometimes happens that the immediate vicinity of a marsh, or other local cause of disease, is safer than an elevated and distant position to leeward. For a similar reason, elevated sites situated on the margin or at the head of steep ravines, up which malaria may be carried by air currents flowing upwards from the low country, are apt to become unhealthy at particular seasons. Such ravines, moreover, from want of care, are often made receptacles for decaying matter and filth, and become dangerous nuisances. There is reason to believe that in tropical climates these ravines convey malaria, and occasion aggravated remittent, or even yellow fevers, at an elevation which would be otherwise exempt from the action of tropical malaria. In tropical climates, camping grounds at the mouth of narrow wooded valleys, down which wind blows, often predispose to fever, and should be avoided. Ground covered with rank vegetation, especially in tropical climates, is unhealthy, partly on account of the amount of decaying matter in the soil, partly because the presence of such vegetation is in itself a mark of the presence of subsoil water, or of a humid atmosphere. In warm climates, muddy sea beaches, or river banks, or muddy ground generally, if it be subject to periodical flooding, and marsh land, especially if it be partly covered with mixed salt and fresh water, are peculiarly hazardous to health. A porous subsoil, not encumbered with vegetation, with a good fall for drainage, not receiving and retaining the water from any higher ground, and the prevailing winds blowing over no marshy or unwholesome ground, will, as a general rule, afford the greatest amount of protection from disease which the climate admits of.

Drainage of Site.—When ground on a slope is to be occupied, it should be catchwater drained above the site to carry off the water from the higher levels, and to prevent the water from passing into the ground on which the

camp is to be placed. The entire area should be trenched to an outfall, in order to drain the subsoil. Any amount of labour bestowed on draining will be amply repaid in the expense saved by preventing disease. The site of every tent or hut should be trenched. The ground between the lines of tents should be trenched, not only to keep it healthy, but to prevent its becoming almost impassable in wet weather; and all the trenches should be laid out on a general plan, with a fall to the outlet. Broken ground, with hollows or pits over its surface, should be avoided for camping purposes, on account of malaria; or if such ground must be occupied, the hollows should be filled up and levelled.

Water Supply.—All proposed water sources should be carefully examined. The microscope affords the readiest means of doing this, on account of the facility with which the presence of organisms and solid organic and inorganic matter can be detected by it. Generally speaking, water that is free of colour, taste, and smell is wholesome, but marsh water, whatever its physical characters may be, should be avoided. It is never wholesome. A few simple chemical tests will readily ascertain the nature of salts held in solution. Of all water for camp use, that from springs away from, and, if possible, at a higher level than the camping ground, is the best. River water and lake water, if otherwise pure, rank next in wholesomeness, and after these deep well water. Shallow wells within a camp, especially if the ground is to be occupied for a length of time, are not safe as water sources. Great improvements might be introduced into the manner of distributing water for camps. Indeed, a little ingenuity spent on this matter would remove half the difficulty, and render unnecessary a large part of the labour at present incurred in camp water supply. In any given case, if the problem as to which is the easiest mode of distributing the water of a camp were considered, there cannot be a doubt that temporary expedients would readily suggest themselves, which would greatly diminish the amount of fatigue duty at present necessary for the purpose. It would also obviate the constant risk of impurity to wells, arising out of the usual method of drawing water. The margin of the well is often a mere quagmire, from which mud falls into the well, and renders the water all but unfit for use. This may be to a considerable extent prevented by paving the ground round the mouth of the well, and enclosing the mouth within a low wall. But the risk of pollution might be avoided altogether by improving the method of drawing and distributing water. Filtration through sand, with or without charcoal, may generally be practised in cases where the condition of the water supply requires it. But before this expedient is resorted to, every endeavour should be made to obtain and distribute water free of impurities. The supply of water to camp animals is often very defective, and much unnecessary suffering and loss is the consequence. A little ingenuity expended on very simple materials will generally prevent this.

Arrangement of Tents and Huts.—As regards the arrangement of tents and huts, it may be laid down as a general rule that the more space allowed between them for ventilation, the more healthy will the force be, but the area over which it is possible to spread a force must necessarily depend on the size of the ground, and on the nature of the service. Some general principle should nevertheless be adopted in dealing with the question. It has been shown in the report of the Royal Commission on the Sanitary State of the Army that the quartermaster-general's instructions for camping, issued at the commencement of the Crimean war, authorized densities

of population on the camp surface equal to 347,000, 348,000, and 664,000 inhabitants per square mile. The lowest of these densities is double that of the most densely populated district in England. It includes, not only the ground actually covered by tents, but all the open spaces in the camp. The ground actually covered by tents in these plans of encampment gave a density of population equal to 1,044,820 per square mile.

The influence on health of surface overcrowding in towns is now well known, and there cannot be a doubt that surface overcrowding in camps is a common cause of camp diseases. A camp is a temporary town without paving or proper drainage. It is only by paving and drainage that the deleterious influence of surface overcrowding in towns can be reduced to a minimum. But paving and drainage cannot be carried out to a sufficient extent in camps to enable the surface to be crowded, and therefore as large an extent of space should be given as the nature of the ground or of the service will admit. At the time of the Health of Towns Inquiry, it was found that the approximate density of population on the built area of five of the principal towns in England was as follows:—Leeds, 87,256 inhabitants per square mile; the Metropolis, 50,000; Birmingham, 40,000; Manchester township, 100,000; and Liverpool parish, 138,224. It was, moreover, found that the proportional annual deaths from fever in these towns increased with the density. In the report of the Royal Commission on the Sanitary State of the Army the following examples are given of the most densely peopled districts in the metropolis:—St. James', Westminster, had 144,008 inhabitants per square mile; Holborn, 148,705; St. Luke, 151,104; Strand, 161,556; East London, 175,816. All these examples drawn from towns occur in places where paving and draining have been more or less carried out, and where, nevertheless, the influence of surface overcrowding on health is obvious on a comparison being made with less crowded districts. If we compare any of these densities with the authorized densities for camps, which have neither drainage nor paving, given above, we shall be enabled to form some estimate of what is likely to be the influence on health of surface overcrowding in camps.

Assuming a square mile = 3,097,600 square yards, and 15 men to a tent as our units of comparison, it will follow that to allow about 350 square yards per tent would give a density per square mile equal to that of Liverpool; about 450 square yards per tent would give a density equal to that of Manchester; about 900 square yards per tent would give a density equal to that of the built part of the metropolis; and to reduce the surface density of a camp to that of Birmingham would require above 1,200 square yards per tent to be allowed. The quartermaster-general's regulations referred to would, if rigidly carried out, allow no more than from about 70 to 134 square yards per tent; but in estimating the probable effect of this area on health, we must revert to the fact already mentioned that the town districts used in the comparison are paved and drained, while camps are not. As already stated, the number of troops to be placed on a given area must be determined by local circumstances; but it will be necessary to take into account the density of population in order to form a correct judgment as regards this very important element in the sanitary state of camps.

The manner of arranging tents is of importance to health, as well as to cleanliness. Battalion camps are not unfrequently arranged in such a way that the tents touch each other, except where a narrow passage is left between the rows for access. A camp so arranged can neither be clean

nor healthy. In cleaning out one row of tents, the dust is merely driven into the adjoining row. Thorough ventilation is impossible; and as regards the unhealthiness of such an arrangement, every army medical officer is in the habit of recommending the spreading of tents over a larger surface as one of the most efficacious means of arresting epidemic disease in camps—a sufficient proof of the relation between camp epidemics and surface overcrowding. Battalion tents should never be arranged in double line; short single lines are best. The tents in line should be separated from each other by a space at the very least equal to a diameter and a half of a tent, and the farther the lines can be conveniently placed from each other the better.

Preparation of Tent Sites.—It is a hazardous expedient to dig out the ground of a tent site with the view of obtaining shelter. The cavity merely acts as a receptacle for water, or for damp air, while occasionally very fatal consequences result from the practice. Sometimes a fireplace is made in the hollow, or a choffer for charcoal is used for warming, and it has happened that the hollow has become filled with carbonic acid gas from the combustion of the charcoal, and the occupants have died from asphyxia. All shelter for troops, wholly or partially dug out of the ground, whether the cavity be covered above by a tent or by any similar contrivance, can never be used without risk of fever. The men's should not only never be below the level of the ground while asleep, but their beds should, wherever possible, be raised above the ground. A certain amount of shelter can always be obtained while digging a trench round the tent site for drainage, by making a bank with the earth round the outside of the trench.

Tent Ventilation.—There is nothing in which more improvement is required in the regulation tent than in ventilation, for which there is at present no provision. The obvious remedy for this want is to provide ventilating openings of sufficient size round the top of the tent pole. This could be done in the present regulation tent by a trivial alteration, which would prevent the atmosphere from becoming so foul and unwholesome as it is at present. Tent ventilation, although it has received so little attention, is really one of prime importance as regards the health of troops in camp. The men have quite enough of exposure to other causes of disease, without subjecting them to the risks of foul air at night. Besides it is impossible to give the men anything like the amount of space in tents which they have in barrack rooms. The space per man in the common bell tent does not exceed 51 cubic feet in camp, and it is only 34 cubic feet on march. In barracks it is now 600 cubic feet per man, or 88 cubic feet more than the total cubic contents of a bell tent. In camp a bell tent is expected to hold 12 men (excluding three men on guard), and 15 men on march. If the air in an occupied tent were renewed to the same extent as it is in the barrack rooms we have ventilated, the whole cubic contents of the tent would have to be renewed from 24 to 30 times per hour. It is a common observation that tents occupying the same ground for a length of time become unhealthy. It appears as if the subsoil becomes saturated with effluvia from the men's bodies, and produces malaria. Shifting the tents to fresh ground within the same lines so as to expose the vacated spots to sun and air, is the obvious and usual remedy for this. These facts are sufficient to show the necessity of abundant ventilation in tents to keep the men in health.

Camp Police.—It need hardly be stated that it is of primary importance in all camps to institute an active camp police for preventing nuisances. As already stated, camps have not, and cannot have, the advantages of paving

and draining enjoyed by towns. A paved surface is readily cleansed, and a drained subsoil cannot become injuriously saturated with water and organic matter. If an undrained and unpaved surface is kept in a filthy state, the subsoil will in a short time be saturated with decomposing matter, and will become a fresh source of malaria, and the whole site will shortly be unfit for occupation. Filth or decaying matter should never be allowed to lie on the surface of a camp, or for a considerable distance round it. Camp nuisances can often be detected by the sense of smell a quarter or half a mile away, in the same manner as the smell of a filthy town can be detected for miles to leeward. Whenever in camps the air smells of foul matter, especially when the atmosphere is still, as it often is at night, there is danger to health, and particularly so during epidemic seasons.

Camp Latrines.—One of the most frequent causes of an unhealthy condition of the air of a camp is either neglecting to provide latrines, so that the ground outside the camp becomes covered with filth, or constructing the latrines too shallow and exposing too large a surface to rain, sun, and air. A camp unprovided with latrines is always in a state of danger from epidemic disease, and all the parts of a camp exposed to emanations from improperly constructed latrines are in the same condition. Latrines should be so managed that no smell from them should ever reach the men's tents; to ensure this, very simple precautions only are required. The latrines should be placed to leeward with prevailing winds, and at as great a distance from the tents as is compatible with convenience. They should be dug narrow and deep, and their contents covered over every evening with at least a foot of fresh earth. A certain bulk of earth, and thickness of covering, are required to absorb the putrescent gas, otherwise it will disperse itself and pollute the air to a considerable distance round. When the latrine is filled to within 2 feet 6 inches or 3 feet of the surface, earth should be thrown into it, and heaped over it like a grave to mark its site. Great care should be taken not to place latrines near existing wells, nor to dig wells near where latrines have been placed. The necessity of these precautions to prevent wells becoming polluted is obvious. Screens made out of any available material are of course required for latrines. In more permanent camps, moveable box latrines should be used, and their contents removed daily, as is the case at Aldershott, Colchester, and Shorncliffe; or water latrines should be provided on the plan already mentioned, if a proper drainage outlet can be obtained.

Picketing Grounds.—The presence of horses, bullocks, and other animals is another obvious cause of impurity in camps. They should be placed to leeward of the men's tents whenever practicable, and the most scrupulous cleanliness should be observed in all picketting grounds. The safest way of disposing of the refuse straw and dung is to cart it away from the camp altogether. For a numerous body of horses a spot should be selected from three-quarters of a mile to a mile at least to leeward, and even further than this in warm, moist climates. Continuous daily burning of the manure and refuse straw is also a good way of disposing of it, but unless very carefully done with a favourable dry wind to carry away the fumes, burning gives rise to much nuisance, and keeps the air to a considerable distance in an offensive state.

Slaughtering Places.—Slaughtering places should be selected with reference also to prevailing winds, at such a distance from the camp that the offal can be buried on the spot with safety, or the offal should be removed and buried at a safe distance.

SCHLESWIG AND HOLSTEIN.

Correspondence respecting the Affairs of the Duchies of Schleswig and Holstein,—1860-61.

On the 16th February, 1860, Mr. Paget, from Copenhagen, sent a copy of a petition to the king signed by twenty-seven members—more than half—of the Schleswig Diet, relative to the grievances which oppressed the duchy. The subjects principally alluded to were the forced instruction in the Danish language, the use of Danish in the churches in districts where it was not understood, the suppression of certain scientific societies, restrictions on the liberty of the press, the prohibition of all meetings, and the desire of Schleswig to be politically united with Holstein.

On the 20th February, Sir Alexander Malet sent from Frankfort a report of the joint-committees of the Diet relating to the question of the Danish duchies. The report recommended that the Diet should declare that its requirements are not satisfied, and that it should give the Danish Government to understand that the menace of execution still subsists, and would continue to impend, until the duchies, by the organ of their provincial states, declare themselves satisfied by the re-establishment of their relations to the crown in harmony with the constitutional provisions of 1851-52. Secondly. The report recommended that in the general affairs of the monarchy the provincial states of Holstein and Lauenburg should have the right of assent or dissent, not on financial points alone, but on all matters of general policy, and also of deliberating on any such matters in common with the other divisions of the monarchy. Thirdly. The committee asked the Diet's authorization for taking such steps as might seem advisable to them for ascertaining whether these decisions of the Diet (presuming them to be voted) are properly carried out, and to report further thereon. The protest of the Danish envoy reminded the Diet of the abolition of the Danish constitution in the duchies, in accordance with the Diet's demands of Feb. 11, 1858, and of the perspective which exists under the "provisorium," of an understanding being arrived at between the crown and the duchies by free negotiations.

The subject was discussed at length, and, on the 18th February, the Diet resolved as follows :—

1. To acquaint the royal Government of Denmark, by means of its envoy for the duchies of Holstein and Lauenburg, while referring to the explanations contained in the report of the respective committee, inserted in the protocol of the 6th sitting of the Diet, February 18 (s. 58), that the Federal Assembly—(a.) Is still of opinion that the royal Government, by the measures which it has hitherto taken, especially by the proposals submitted to the Assembly of the Holstein States, and by the pure and simple rejection of the proposals of these states, has not fulfilled the obligations laid down in the Federal resolution of the 11th February, 1858, s. 2, letters *a* and *b*, and that it must on that account insist on their prompt accomplishment; that, however, (b.) In consideration of the declarations of the royal Government, contained in the note of its envoy for Holstein and Lauenburg, the Diet will again postpone for the moment the execution of the measures conformable to the Federal laws, and already decreed by the resolution of August 12, 1858, which were intended to obtain the realization of the abovenamed resolution. It attaches to this, however, (a.) The

condition that, until the re-establishment of a definitive constitutional state of things, answering to the promises of 1851 and 1852,

(1.) The tenour of the royal proclamation of January 28, 1852, shall form the exclusive rule for the settlement of questions which should be considered as common or as special affairs; that

(2.) In order to protect the equality of rights of the German Federal Provinces with the other parts of the monarchy during the provisional arrangement, all the projects of law submitted to the Council of the kingdom shall be equally submitted to the states of the duchies of Holstein and Lauenburg, and that no law concerning the common affairs, especially in matters of finance, shall be promulgated for the duchies, as long as it has not received the assent of the States of those provinces, seeing that the Diet will be unable to consider as obligatory, on the duchies, ordinances passed in contravention of this condition.

2. To announce, besides, to the royal Government, that the Diet will not oppose the intention of the Government to convoke delegates from the different parts of the monarchy for the purpose of deliberating on a definitive common constitution, on condition that, (a.) Conformably to the principle of the stipulations of 1851 and 1852, these deliberations shall be carried on by delegates of particular legal constituencies of all parts of the country; that (b.) These deliberations shall be brought about with the greatest promptitude possible, in order that this incidental measure may not cause a useless delay in the re-establishment of a legal constitutional state of things; and that, (c.) This discussion, as a matter of course, shall not prejudice in any manner the negotiations with the States of the duchies of Holstein and Lauenburg.

3. To charge the united committees to make to the Diet, if in their opinion it be necessary, a further report on the execution of this resolution.

On the 14th March, Mr. Paget sent, from Copenhagen, a copy of the communication made by the Danish representative at Frankfort, by order of his Government, on the occasion of the report of the committee for Holstein affairs being submitted to the vote of the Diet.

The proposal of the Danish Government which gave rise to this report was that with a view of adopting the most practical means for forming a general constitution for the monarchy comprising Holstein and Lauenburg, a commission of delegates chosen from the Holstein Provincial States and the Rigsraad (general assembly of the monarchy) should be appointed, which commission was to be in communication with the Government, and discuss with it the plan to be adopted. The report of the committee of the Diet, while admitting the idea of a mixed commission, insisted that instead of its members being selected out of the Rigsraad they should be taken from the different provincial assemblies. The argument of the Danish Government was that the Confederation had no authority to dictate in what manner a commission which is to discuss the internal arrangements for the Danish monarchy is to be composed, and that their doing so is an undue interference in a matter appertaining exclusively to the sovereign rights of Denmark. If it is adopted, they withdraw their proposal of a commission altogether, and prefer treating directly with the Holstein States.

On the 11th August, 1860, Lord John Russell wrote to Mr. Paget that the Danish Government should take some steps to conciliate the German powers. A liberal and separate constitution for Schleswig would conduce to this end. If a conciliatory plan were proposed, fulfilling all that the

Danish Government have promised, her Majesty could be advised to recommend it to the Diet with some prospect of success.

On the 28th April, Lord Bloomfield informed Lord John Russell that a petition was about to be discussed, having for its object to call upon the Government for an inquiry as to whether the conditions agreed to in the negotiations with the Danish Government of the years 1851 and 1852 in respect of the duchy of Schleswig have been fulfilled, and if not fulfilled, to solicit the Government to take the necessary measures to obtain this fulfilment. The conditions alluded to are described in a statement of Baron Schleinitz as follows:—

The general result of the negotiations carried on in the years 1851 and 1852 between the Confederation and the Danish Cabinet, may be described under three heads:—1. The non-incorporation of Schleswig into Denmark. 2. The recognition of an independent position invested with equal rights (*“Selbständige und gleichberechtigte stellung”*) for the different parts of the monarchy, consequently for Schleswig also, within the limits of the united kingdom (*“gesammt monarchie”*). 3. Equal rights for the German and the Danish nationality in Schleswig. These rightful claims have hitherto remained unfulfilled. The state of things actually existing in Schleswig in many respects approaches, as regards its practical results (*“in seinen wirkungen”*), to an incorporation, and the German nationality is notoriously less favourably treated than the Danish. Consequently the Confederation has the right, flowing from the negotiation above adverted to, to insist on the fulfilment on the part of Denmark of the promises given by her. That the Confederation has hitherto not taken this step, and that it has contented itself during the past years in drawing the question of Holstein and Lauenburg only before its forum, is a policy for which it is manifest that there were reasons of great weight; however, opinions may be divided as to the expediency of such a separation of the two questions.

Upon this petition a lengthened discussion took place in the Prussian House of Representatives, after which they came to a unanimous vote of 305 members as follows:—“That the House of Representatives, in recommending the petitions in question to the attention of the King’s Government, express their expectation that the said Government will leave no means untried to assist the duchies of Schleswig and Holstein to attain at length the full enjoyment of their deeply injured rights.”

In consequence of these proceedings in the Prussian chambers, the Danish minister sent a note to the British Government, complaining of the proceedings of the Prussian Government, and of the attitude of the Prussian Government, and protesting against their interference in the internal affairs of a part of the Danish monarchy. And this note called forth a counter-note on the part of Baron Schleinitz.

On the 20th and 27th June, Lord John Russell asked of Mr. Paget his opinion respecting the controversy between Denmark and the German Diet, and as to the ulterior views of the parties concerned. Also a concise report on the present state of affairs in Holstein, pointing out especially how far the terms of the compact uniting that duchy to the Germanic Confederation have been infringed, and also a report showing clearly in what respect Denmark has failed to keep the engagement which she entered into with Austria and Prussia respecting Schleswig. In compliance with this request, Mr. Paget sent the following statement:—

[441]

After the war between Denmark and the Germanic Confederation, the Danish Government announced the intention of uniting the different parts of the country, namely, Holstein, Schleswig, Lauenburg, and Denmark Proper, into one corporate monarchy by legal and constitutional means. This intimation, in so far as it regarded Holstein and Lauenburg, was accepted as satisfactory by Austria and Prussia, and afterwards by the Diet. As a consequence of the understanding thus arrived at, his Danish Majesty issued a royal patent on the 28th of January, 1852, announcing the decision which he had taken, which was to be carried out on the principle of "equality and independence" for each portion of the empire.

A general constitution for the whole monarchy was accordingly drawn up on this basis, and promulgated ("octroyée") in the month of October, 1855; but the duchy of Holstein refused to admit its validity, because of its not having been submitted to the provincial states previously to its promulgation. It was also stated, as a reason for its non-acceptance, that it did not contain the guarantees for "equality and independence" in the general representation, promised in the royal patent; and the views of the duchy were set forth on this subject.

The objections of Holstein, as belonging to the Confederation, were supported by the Diet on the ground of the promulgation in the manner above stated being an infringement of an article of the final act of the Congress of Vienna; and the result of the controversy between the Danish Government and the Diet on this question was brought to an end by the abrogation of the constitution in its application to Holstein and Lauenburg. This took place in the month of November, 1858, the Danish Government being with great difficulty brought, by the advice of England and France, to yield the point. The only infringement, therefore, of any Federal act would appear to have been removed by the step thus taken.

The Danish Government then submitted to the provincial states of Holstein a project of constitution for their consideration and observations. The project submitted was the self-same constitution which had just been annulled, and which is now in force in the other parts of the monarchy. The result of the deliberations of the Holstein States was a counter-project, considered on all hands to be inadmissible and impracticable. Thus, therefore, a satisfactory solution for the main difficulty, namely, how to reconcile the ideas of Holstein respecting "equality and independence," in a common representation, with what was due to the other parts of the monarchy, was as far removed as ever; but in the meantime it was essential to provide, at all events, for the position which the province was to occupy until such time as a definitive agreement should be arrived at. The constitution had been abolished; consequently the representatives of Holstein could not appear in the General Assembly of the monarchy ("Rigsraad") which was about to meet. If measures voted by this body, without the participation of Holstein deputies, were applied to this duchy, they would most certainly have been resisted as illegal, and the inevitable result would have been to have brought the Danish Government into a worse difficulty than ever with the German Confederation.

The course adopted, therefore, was to issue, a few days before the meeting of the "Rigsraad," in the month of September of last year, a royal patent placing the duchy of Holstein temporarily under the direct authority of the king, and fixing the amount of the contribution of the duchy towards the general expenses of the monarchy. Shortly after this, the Danish repre-

sentative at Frankfort was instructed to inform the Diet of the steps which had been taken, and to state that, with a view of arriving at a definitive arrangement, the Danish Government proposed that a commission, to be chosen out of the "Risgraad" and the Holstein Provincial States, should be named, and treat with the Government in Copenhagen. This proposal was declined by the Diet, for the reasons which I had the honour to report to your lordship at the time; and the consequence is that the duchy of Holstein now remains, as above stated, under the direct and absolute authority of the sovereign.

In order to make this sketch of the existing state of things as concise as possible, I have purposely avoided entering into details, which your lordship will find in the correspondence addressed by my predecessor and myself to the Foreign Office.

I now come to the question of Schleswig, and I must begin by saying that I am aware of no engagement taken by Denmark towards Austria and Prussia, which can be said to have been actually violated, although it may be a question of appreciation how far the Danish Government acts in a liberal spirit in the sense of the obligations it has undertaken, not indeed towards the German Powers, but towards its own subjects and in the face of Europe.

The only positive engagement entered into by Denmark towards Austria and Prussia, was that it would not incorporate Schleswig, or do anything which would tend towards that end.

Schleswig, like Holstein, has a separate constitution and provincial states and the Danish Government meets all accusations of attempts to incorporate the duchy, by pointing to these guarantees for its independence. The promises with regard to placing the two nationalities, German and Danish, on an equal footing, and granting to each the same "powerful protection," are to be found in the royal patent of the 28th January, 1852, above alluded to; but this was an engagement undertaken as an act of sovereign will on the part of his Danish Majesty, and cannot in any way be considered as binding in an international point of view, or as giving the right to any foreign power, German or other, to interfere, except in the way of friendly remonstrance, respecting the manner in which it is fulfilled. That there is much to be said on this subject there can be no doubt, and that the effect of some of the existing laws, as well as the manner in which they are carried out, is severely felt by the German portion of the community is equally certain.

The laws to which I would especially call your lordship's attention are those relating to forced confirmation in the Danish language, forced system of private education, revision of the electoral lists, and prohibition of meetings, even for scientific purposes. The latter is a recent enactment, and, at the time, was strongly remonstrated against by my predecessor. It may be well to explain, with regard to the electoral lists, that any person's name may be struck out who has been accused of a crime and not acquitted, and advantage is not unfrequently taken of this power to strike out the names of those who, without having positively transgressed any law, have subjected themselves to police proceedings for their political conduct, or in other words for their known German opinions. These are some of the causes for the feeling of irritation and hostility which prevails in the duchy, and furnish in some degree the materials for the agitation which the Danish Government complains is kept up by its adversaries. Their removal could not fail, I think, to produce a calming and beneficial effect, and would not

be productive of any of the results—such as Germanizing the duchy, and eventually tending towards its reunion with Holstein, &c.—which the Danish Government pretend to anticipate.

I must guard myself, however, against being understood to say that I think the removal of the grievances alluded to would be of itself sufficient to satisfy the German party in the duchies, or the German Confederation. To do this thoroughly would entail a subversion of the existing organization of the monarchy, by reverting to the state of things before 1848, and re-establishing the former political union between Schleswig and Holstein; an arrangement to which no Danish government could be brought to agree, even if it could be urged to do so. But without having recourse to this extreme measure, I am of opinion that it is in the power of the Danish Government to adopt others which, without in any way endangering the existing order of things in the monarchy, could not fail to produce the most satisfactory results, and would place the Danish Government beyond the reach of accusations as to the non-fulfilment of its promises.

The first of these measures should be, to grant to the duchy of Schleswig, as I reported to your lordship in my despatch of the 24th of April I had suggested to M. Hall, a new constitution, on a liberal basis, which should ensure legislative and administrative independence to the duchy. A new arrangement with regard to the languages might also be made in the sense of that alluded to in my abovenamed despatch; and, in short, such other guarantees for the liberty and development of nationalities in the duchy as might be in accordance with the wishes of the population. Such concessions as made to precede an equitable proposal for Holstein, would, I believe, go far to ensure it a favourable consideration, both in that duchy and in Germany; and without something of this nature being done, I fear all efforts to bring about a settlement of the question will be fruitless: for although the Confederation has no actual right of interference in the duchy of Schleswig, as it has in Holstein, it must always be borne in mind that the two duchies were for centuries united by the same laws and institutions; that they are to a great extent peopled by the same race; and that these circumstances have produced sympathies between them in which it is not unnatural that Germany should take part, and which will ever be the stumbling-block of every arrangement proposed for the one duchy until justice is done to the other.

Without, therefore, now entering into details, I would venture to express the opinion that the great point to be obtained from the Danish Government is, a frank and loyal recognition of the freedom and equality of the nationalities of the duchy; the removal of every unnecessary and vexatious restriction; and that as much independence should be granted to the provincial assemblies of both Holstein and Schleswig as is compatible with the integrity and preservation of the monarchy.

To which may be added the following memorandum:—

The main point to be borne in mind in discussing the question at issue between the Danish Government and the Confederation is the absolute necessity, with a view to ensuring success to any proposal which may be made for Holstein, that a new order of things should be introduced into Schleswig.

The Danish Government took a positive engagement towards Austria and Prussia not to incorporate this duchy, and it maintains that the provincial states and constitution which the duchy possesses are a sufficient

fulfilment of this engagement. The German Governments, on the contrary, contend that by indirect means the incorporation has virtually been accomplished.

The king of Denmark further made the promise in the royal patent of 1852 to place the nationalities of the duchy on an equal footing. The Germans interpret this as an international engagement in consequence of its resulting from previous diplomatic negotiations, and they contend that the Danish Government, so far from acting up to the engagement, uses every means to oppress and tyrannize over the German population. The existence of certain laws give a colouring to this statement, and it would, therefore, be expedient that the Danish Government should be urged to change them. The principal are those which relate to forced confirmation in the Danish language, forced system of private education, the prohibition of meetings of scientific societies, and revision of electoral lists. If the Danish Government would in addition grant to Schleswig a new constitution guaranteeing legislative and administrative independence to the duchy, and make the question of the language to be used in the schools and churches dependent on the will of the population in the so-called "mixed districts," it would be difficult to accuse them any longer of violating their engagements, or of a wish to incorporate the duchy.

On the 24th July, Lord John Russell received from M. de Bille a statement of the measures adopted in Denmark with reference to language and nationality in the Duchy of Schleswig, from which it appears that inasmuch as Schleswig contained a population of a mixed nationality, and using indiscriminately Danish and German as mediums of intercourse, the ordinances decided that Danish and German shall alternately be used in the churches and in the schools, and that where one only can be used, the Danish shall have the preference. In a memorandum communicated to Lord John Russell by M. de Bille it was stated that the Danish Government proposed to provide for the temporary state of things by giving the provincial assembly of Holstein full legislative powers in conjunction with the general assembly for the rest of the monarchy as to all matters concerning the whole monarchy; and, also, that the sum of contributions to be furnished by Holstein to the finances of the State shall be fixed by taking the average of what that duchy has contributed during the last four years. In answer to the memorandum, Lord John Russell said that whilst the concessions towards Holstein were large, nothing was said about Schleswig. What was wanted was to remove the causes of complaint, viz., the forced confirmation in the Danish language, the forced system of private education, the prohibition of the meeting of scientific societies, and the system employed in the correction of the electoral lists, and also a constitution for Schleswig, guaranteeing to the duchy legislative and administrative independence. On the 27th August, Lord John Russell received from Mr. Paget a memorandum drawn up by the Danish Government on Holstein, omitting certain, and offering some concessions on the points suggested by Lord John Russell; the principal points of which were:—

1. The religious ceremony of confirmation to be performed in the language selected by the individual.
2. Freedom of private instruction, conditional on passing the usual public examination.
3. Complete amnesty for political offences, and re-establishment of attainted individuals in their political rights.
4. Freedom of meeting and association between Schleswigers and Holsteiners for non-political purposes, and provided no such designation as

Schleswig-Holstein is attached to the society. These concessions did not meet with the approval of her Majesty's Government, and Lord John Russell wrote that they were persuaded that they might have been made in a more large and generous spirit.

Considerable correspondence continued to take place on the subject, between her Majesty's Government, the Russian Minister, and the British Minister at Frankfort, and on the 11th January, Mr. Paget sent a royal proclamation on the points already referred to. Meanwhile the Holstein States were summoned to meet on the 6th March, which met at Itzehoe. And on the 11th March, Mr. Paget transmitted a notification of the king to the Holstein States the draft of a provisional arrangement, to take effect on the 1st April, 1861, and of a special constitution to Holstein as follows:—

Draft of a Law on the Provisional State of Holstein, with reference to the Common Affairs of the Danish Monarchy.

§ 1. As regards those matters which, in accordance with our royal patent of 28th Jan., 1852, belong to our ministries for foreign affairs, of finance, of war, and of marine, our Duchy of Holstein shall retain an administration in common with the other portions of our monarchy.

§ 2. Changes in the existing laws concerning taxes and duties, due to the common treasury, the royal domains, the customs, the Eider Canal dues, the port, and telegraph establishments, and the affairs of the mint, in the Duchy of Holstein, shall in future only take place with the previous sanction of the assembly of the Land States of the said duchy.

§ 3. From those detachments of the army which are recruited in the Duchy of Holstein, a separate division shall be formed with regard to the expenses connected therewith. Alterations in military laws shall, as far as they concern the said division of the army, only take place with the sanction of the Land States.

§ 4. Laws concerning an alteration in the present system of recruiting men to the army or the navy, and the procuring of horses, provisions, fodder, quarters, and similar matters, in so far as they concern the Duchy of Holstein, require the sanction of the Land States.

§ 5. In a like manner the law respecting the rights of natives can only be altered, and the privileges of natives only be conferred, by us on foreigners residing in the Duchy of Holstein, with the previous sanction of the Land States.

§ 6. In so far as the alterations in the code of laws, named in paragraphs 2 and 5, are of such a nature that their execution requires corresponding alterations in the code of laws of the other portions of the monarchy, we will not give our royal sanction to the draft of law in question, before the Council of State ("Rigsraad") has taken a decision. We will cause to be laid before the assembly of the Land States, in the regular order of business, proposals to such decisions, which shall be suitable to adjust eventual deviations in the resolutions. Should it, notwithstanding these decisions, be impossible to arrive at a final resolution, and if an alteration in the present code of laws be acknowledged as necessary by us, and by one of the said assemblies, then we reserve to ourselves, with the sanction of this assembly, to effect the alteration in the portion of the monarchy interested; and further, to take such measures in the administration of affairs as may be necessary, in consequence of the restrictions caused by said alteration in the hitherto existing union of affairs.

§ 7. The assembly of the Land States is entitled to propose to us changes in the code of laws in the matters mentioned in paragraphs 2 and 5.

§ 8. The assembly shall likewise be entitled to present and support proposals, petitions, and complaints in all affairs in common with the monarchy, in so far as they concern the interests of the Duchy of Holstein. Our royal resolution respecting such proposals, as well as those mentioned in the foregoing paragraphs, shall be communicated to the assembly of the Land States, provided they are still assembled, otherwise to the next assembly.

§ 9. The expenses concerning the following affairs and institutions shall be voted by the Land States of Holstein, but defrayed from the common revenues of the monarchy:—1. The frontier customs establishments in the Duchy of Holstein; 2. The local administration of customs in the duchy; 3. The local administration of the post-office and state telegraphs of the duchy; 4. Pilots, lights, and beacons on the coasts of Holstein; 5. The central deposit bank in Rendsburg; 6. The mint in Altona.

§ 10. For that division of the army mentioned in § 3, the expenses shall also be voted by the Land-States of Holstein, but defrayed from the special revenues of the duchy.

§ 11. The ordinary expenses of those branches of administration mentioned in paragraphs 9 and 10 will have to be fixed by a normal budget; the extraordinary expenses to be

voted by special additional laws. Until this normal budget can be settled by law, we will fix a preliminary normal budget, in which those expenses shall be named which are sanctioned by existing laws, or by the ordinary requirements of the different branches of administration. But the total sum of each of the chief sections of this budget must not exceed the average amount of those sums which have been sanctioned for the same purposes for the financial periods from April 1, 1856, to March 31, 1860. That part of this normal budget which concerns the above-mentioned division of the army includes, besides the special expenses of said division, a fixed annual contribution to such military institutions, which, after the formation of this division, remain in common for it with the rest of the army. The amount of this contribution must, in the preliminary normal budget, not exceed 21·64 per cent. of the average amount of the sums granted for the same purpose for the financial periods from April 1, 1856, to March 31, 1860.

§ 12. In future 21·64 per cent. of all revenues in common shall be credited to the special treasury of the Duchy of Holstein, with the exception of such contributions from the individual provinces of the country which are taken from their separate revenues (§ 10 in the preliminary normal budget of 28th February, 1856). But the surplus of the revenues of the royal domains in the Duchy of Holstein shall, against an annual fixed payment of 640,000 rix-dollars to the common treasury of the monarchy, belong to the special revenues of the Duchy of Holstein. With respect to the voting of the expenses which are to be defrayed from the revenues of these domains, the rules laid down in § 11 are applicable, though with observance of the resolutions in our patent of 23rd September, 1859, respecting a change in the posting and calculation of sundry revenues and expenses, relating to the domains in the Duchy of Holstein, in conformity with the budget. Should there, in any matter relating to the common revenues, be effected a restriction in the existing union, in accordance with the resolutions in § 6, then the revenue thereby affected shall no longer be a common, but a separate one.

§ 13. To cover the following common expenses of the monarchy, a fixed annual contribution is to be made by the separate treasury of Holstein; its amount can only be increased with the sanction of the Diet of the Duchy, viz.:—The civil list, 173,000 rd.; the appanages to the members of the royal family, 80,000 rd.; the privy council, 15,000 rd.; interest on and liquidation of the national debt, 1,187,000 rd.; the ministry for foreign affairs, 52,000 rd.; the ministry of marine, 440,000 rd.; the ministry of finance (including expenses of the monarchy hitherto appearing in the budget as incidentals), 133,000 rd. The special treasury of the duchy will furthermore have to pay 21·64 per cent. of the amount required to defray common pensions of functionaries and their survivors, of inferior classes of the army, and of invalids, in accordance with the existing laws and regulations. Extraordinary pension-laws for functionaries acting in the duchy under the ministry for common affairs, and for their survivors, must be laid before the Diet. Provided 21·64 per cent. of the annual amount required to pay the interest and liquidation of the national debt of the monarchy can, in consequence of the eventual alterations in the amount of the said debt, or in its interest or liquidation, permanently be reduced below the above-mentioned 1,187,000 rix-dollars, then the fixed annual contribution from the special treasury of the Duchy of Holstein shall be reduced in proportion. But the duchy shall pay 21·64 per cent. of the eventual underbalance of the public fund for widows. The regulations in our royal patent of 23rd September, 1859, respecting the amount payable by the Duchy of Holstein to cover the common expenses of the monarchy, during the financial period from April 1, 1860, to March 31, 1862, shall serve as a guide for the financial period from April 1, 1861, to March 31, 1862.

§ 14. As regards provisional laws, and expenses not voted, the regulations in paragraphs 15 and 17 of the law respecting the constitution of Holstein shall remain in force also in common affairs.

§ 15. The State account is to be laid before the Diet for consideration, before it is adopted by us.

§ 16. Laws by which this law is altered, as well as laws which have in view a further development of the position of the Duchy of Holstein in the monarchy, can only be made with the previous sanction of the Diet of Holstein.

Draft of a Law respecting the Constitution of the Duchy of Holstein.

§ 1. Our Duchy of Holstein has, as an independent portion of the Danish monarchy, its own legislation and administration with reference to its special affairs. The special affairs are:—Every obligation consequent on the relation of the duchy to the German Confederation; justice and police (with the exception of that part which is entrusted to the army), including the general legislation on the subject of municipal affairs, crimes, and judicial proceedings; recruiting of naval or military forces which, in accordance with existing plans, or the laws emanating from the legislation for common affairs, are to be supplied by the Duchy of Holstein; supply of horses, provisions, fodder, quarter, and similar necessities, which the duchy in a like manner is bound to contribute; church and education, including public schools, with the exception of those belonging to the army; municipal affairs; pauper establishments; trade and commerce; agriculture; taxation on real property, private fortune, income, and trade;

[447]

stamps and all special revenues, expenses, and any new tax, having in view a special income for the Duchy of Holstein; the raising of funds required for the redemption of the assignats issued by the Holstein treasury, as well as of any new debt incurred by the Duchy of Holstein on its own account; sanitary affairs; roads and railways; supply of free public conveyances for government purposes; insurance; wrecks and salvage; militia; entailed estates and public institutions; the dykes; administration of the domains and forests in the duchy.

§ 2. As special affairs, in common between the Duchies of Schleswig and Holstein, will be considered those which, in accordance with our royal patent of January 28, 1852, are not political institutions, namely:—The university of Kiel; the order of knighthood (Ritterschaft); the Eider Canal (exclusive of the customs tariff); fire insurance establishments; the prisons; the deaf and dumb asylum; the madhouse.

§ 3. The supreme power in special affairs of the Duchy of Holstein (§ 1) which belongs to us, with the restrictions stipulated below, will be exercised by us through our minister for the Duchy of Holstein and Lauenburg. Royal patents respecting the special legislation and administration of the Duchy of Holstein, must, in order to be valid, also be signed by our minister for the Duchy of Holstein and Lauenburg, who by such act is made responsible.

§ 4. The minister for the Duchy of Holstein and Lauenburg can be prosecuted by us, or by the assembly of the states, for violating the present constitutional law. In the latter instance, such complaint must be made through the president of the assembly, whose functions continue in force so far as they may be necessary for the prosecution, after the dissolution of the assembly, and is to be judged by the High Court of Appeal of the Duchy of Holstein and Lauenburg. Until a law has been issued with regard to the mode of prosecution and punishment, the High Court of Appeal shall proceed in the treatment of such a complaint in accordance with the usage observed in fiscal proceedings by the Holstein Chief Dyke Court; the trial to be held verbally and publicly, and the punishments to be inflicted in such cases are, dismissal or forfeiture of office; the last punishment deprives the person concerned of access to any office in the service of the state. A free pardon can, in these cases, only be granted with the sanction of the assembly of the state.

§ 5. The Evangelican-Lutheran Church is the state church of our Duchy of Holstein. Its revenues must not be diminished, and must only be applied to its own purposes; and if, to accomplish such purposes, it be necessary to raise funds, they shall be supplied from the revenues of Holstein. The clergymen of this state church shall continue, in future, as hitherto, to take part in the inspection and management of the public schools and the poor-houses.

§ 6. The king can dismiss the functionaries appointed by him. Their pensions will be fixed by the pension law, or, until such a law has been made, in accordance with the rules hitherto observed. The functionary who is removed against his wish has a right to claim his discharge with usual pension. Functionaries who only hold the office of judge cannot be dismissed in any other manner than by law and judgment; but when they have completed their sixty-fifth year they can be removed by the government, but in such case they are entitled to their full pay as pension. Such a measure may also, from other reasons, be taken with respect to the said judicial functionaries, when the majority of the High Court of Appeal, on special grounds, have sanctioned it.

§ 7. For the purpose of settling disputes as to competency between the judicial and administrative authorities, a tribunal of competency, composed of administrative and judicial functionaries, shall be established. Until a law to this effect has been made, we, however, reserve to ourselves the right of settling such matters in our privy council; but every one is bound, meanwhile, to comply with the orders of the police or local authorities. Any wilful disobedience of such orders is liable to a punishment which will be decided according to the judgment of the court.

§ 8. Every person is entitled to publish his ideas through the press, under responsibility to the tribunals. The present regulation will only come in force contemporarily with the emanation of a law on the subject of the public press, a draft of which we will lay before the next assembly of the Land States. Until then the present law remains in force.

§ 9. The public are entitled to form societies, with a lawful object in view, without previous permission. The government have a right, until further, to forbid public societies, but in such case they are bound immediately to bring the question before the tribunals for decision.

§ 10. Any person imprisoned shall, within twenty-four hours, be brought before a magistrate.

§ 11. The enjoyment of civic, as well as of political and municipal rights, is not to be depended upon or limited by profession of faith. With regard to political and municipal obligations no profession of faith can be a reason for exemption from their fulfilment.

§ 12. The assembly of the Land States forms the lawful organ of the different classes of our Duchy of Holstein, and is composed of—1. The person who, for the time being, is owner of the entailed estates of the Prince of Hessestein, provided he has arrived at the age of twenty-five, and is in legal possession. He is at liberty to cause himself to be represented by a person qualified for election and owner of an estate, who is not already a member of the assembly of the Land States. 2. Five deputies chosen from the clergy of the Duchy of Holstein, elected by their own body in five clerical election districts. 3. Four deputies elected

by the "verbitteren" of the convent of Itzehoe, the deans of the convents of Preetz and of Utersen, and the members of the order of knighthood of Holstein from among themselves (place of election, Kiel). 4. Nine deputies elected by and among the possessors of noble and other large estates valued for taxation at 50,000 reals at least (place of election, Kiel). 5. Sixteen minor landed proprietors, elected in sixteen districts. (Annex A to the ordinance of 15th May, 1834.) 6. Fifteen inhabitants of towns and villages elected in twelve districts. (Annex B to the ordinance of 15th May, 1834.) Finally, we will permit the academical consistorium of the university of Kiel, under the superintendence of the rector of the said university, to elect one member from its own body.

§ 13. The assembly of Land States to meet when summoned. In the regular course this will take place every second year, so that there will be three meetings in each election period, provided we do not find it necessary, before the expiration of that period, to dissolve the assembly and order new elections under extraordinary circumstances, as often as we, according to events, deem it requisite. Each time we reserve to ourselves the right to decide whether, in the latter case, the next summons shall take place after the expiration of two years, or before. We can prorogue the assembly for a certain time, though not beyond four months, without its sanction. If the Diet be dissolved, new elections shall take place immediately, and the new assembly shall be summoned to meet, at the latest, within four months of the close of the elections. We reserve to ourselves the right to decide the duration of the meetings of the assembly.

§ 14. With respect to the special affairs of the Duchy of Holstein, new laws shall not be issued, and existing laws shall not be changed or abolished without the previous sanction of the assembly of the Land States, and in any such laws the sanction of the assembly shall be distinctly referred to. But this decision shall not be applicable to the federal resolutions published in the Duchy of Holstein in accordance with the constitution of the Confederation.

§ 15. In certain cases, when the states are not assembled, the king may issue preliminary laws, which must, however, not be in opposition to the constitution, and shall always be laid before the next assembly for approval.

§ 16. The special revenues of the Duchy of Holstein are those derived from its own sources of income, or collected with reference to special expenses. Special expenses of the Duchy of Holstein are those which concern its separate affairs, as also the contribution due from the duchy to the common expenses of the monarchy.

§ 17. A normal budget, containing the ordinary special revenues and expenses of the Duchy of Holstein, will be fixed by law. This budget can only be changed by law for each biennial financial period; the extraordinary revenues and expenses will be voted by a special additional law. No expenditure, with the exception of the contribution due from the Duchy of Holstein, on account of the common expenses of the monarchy (§ 16) and the disbursements to the German Confederation (§ 1), must be incurred, which is not sanctioned in the said budget, or by a separate law. But the king can, under extraordinary circumstances, sanction expenses which have not been voted. Such a resolution must always be taken by the king in privy council, and must be countersigned by the minister for the Duchy of Holstein and Lauenburg who, by such act, becomes responsible. The public state account, concerning the special revenues and expenses of the Duchy of Holstein for each financial period, has to be approved by law. The king regulates the budget until it is finally established by law. But the total amount of expenses for each head department must not exceed the average amount of that sum which has been granted for the same purpose in the budgets for the financial period from 1st of April, 1856, to 31st of March, 1860.

§ 18. With regard to the non-political institutions and establishments common for our Duchies of Schleswig and Holstein, which are to be administered, in union, by our ministers for the Duchy of Schleswig and for the Duchies of Holstein and Lauenburg, changes in the code of laws can only take place after a previous deliberation of the assembly of our Land States of the Duchy of Holstein, except with reference to Eider Canal Dues. If these changes should increase the expenses hitherto allowed by law, then the assembly will have to decide as to the manner of payment of that portion of such expenses which is to fall on our duchy of Holstein,—our royal sanction thereto being reserved.

§ 19. The meetings of the Land States are public, except at the period of voting on matters which have been discussed, and when the deliberations of the assembly are to be discussed. When required by our commissary, when ordered by the president, or when demanded, in writing, by at least ten deputies, strangers must temporarily withdraw; but it depends upon the resolution of the assembly whether the meeting shall continue to be secret or again become public. The resolutions of the assembly shall be decided by plurality of votes. If the votes be equal in number, the president of the assembly will decide the matter by his vote.

§ 20. The assembly of the Land States is entitled to apply to us with respect to changes in the code of laws, relating to matters within their sphere of action.

§ 21. The assembly of the Land States shall likewise be entitled to forward and support proposals, petitions, and complaints, respecting such administrative arrangements in our Duchy of Holstein as concern its special affairs. With regard to such petitions, as well as those mentioned in the foregoing paragraph, we shall communicate our resolution to the

assembly of the Land States, provided it be still assembled; if not, to the next ordinary or extraordinary meeting of the Land States.

§ 22. During the assembly of the representatives no member can be arrested for debt without the consent of the Diet, nor can he be imprisoned, or be accused, if not taken in the act of misdeed. No member can be made responsible for expressions used by him in the assembly without its consent.

§ 23. For participation in the elections of deputies to the assembly of the Land States is required—1. The right of a native, or ten years' residence in our Duchy of Holstein. 2. To have completed one's twenty-fifth year at the time of the election. 3. Unspotted reputation. Whoever has lost his honour, his office, or his rights as a citizen, in a legal proceeding, or who has been condemned to forced labour, or who has been tried for a crime, and not been entirely cleared, is excluded from the rights of election. 4. The right of managing one's own property. Whosoever has been legally declared incapable of managing his own property, or who, of his own free will, has given up the management of it; whoever has, in the two years preceding the election, been in private service, without a home of his own; whoever has received aid from the poor-box, and has not repaid it, is excluded from participation in the elections. 5. Uninterrupted residence during the last year, previous to the election, within our Duchy of Holstein. This rule does not apply to those who, in the fulfilment of their military or naval duties, have resided out of the Duchy of Holstein. Journeys on business or pleasure are not considered as interruptions of this residence. 6. For the great landed proprietors, besides the foregoing qualifications stated in Nos. 1 to 5, actual ownership of or entailed possession of a noble estate, or of a farm, at the time of election, taxed, at least, to the value of 50,000 rix-dollars. 7. For the inhabitants of the provincial town, electoral districts of the Duchy of Holstein, consisting of towns, boroughs, and the tracts allotted to them, besides the conditions contained in Nos. 1 to 5, the freehold possession of a piece of land, insured for, at least, 800 rix-dollars in the fire insurance office, or taxed in house-tax to that amount, within the electoral district at the time of the election. 8. For the inhabitants of the rural elective districts, besides the requirements mentioned in Nos. 1 to 5, the possession, in freehold or hereditary leasehold, of a landed property within the elective district in question which, for payment of assessed taxes, has been valued at 800 rix-dollars at lowest. 9. For the members of the Holstein nobility ("ritterschaft"), clergy, and of the university of Kiel, the requirements mentioned, Nos. 1 to 5, are necessary.

§ 24. Every one who, in accordance with the above stipulations, has the right of electing is also eligible, but only in that class to which he belongs.

§ 25. Government officials do not require the permission of government previous to acceptance if chosen; but they must, at their own expense, provide for the administration of their official duties in the manner prescribed by their chiefs.

§ 26. Moreover, with reference to the election of the deputies for the assembly of the Land States, as well as with reference to the payment and collection of the costs incurred by the elections and by the Diet, and to the mode of proceeding to be adopted in this assembly, the regulations of the decree of the 15th May, 1834, are to serve as a rule, which regulations have been drawn up for that purpose in annex A, with the modifications which the present decree renders necessary. But we reserve the right, in the cases in which proposals of laws have been laid before the assembly for their decision, to communicate them, after they have been formally discussed and voted, in such form as shall be considered fitting, from the result of the formal discussion, and, then, the acceptance or the rejection of the proposal, as a whole, shall be again voted. It lies with the States to decide whether in this extraordinary third discussion the matter is to be first referred to a committee; nevertheless, only a deliberation can take place.

§ 27. Any modifications of the regulations contained in the present decree and its annexes shall be discussed as other changes in the legislation of the special affairs of the Duchy of Holstein; but shall not be introduced by a temporary arrangement.

Minutes to the Draft of a Law concerning the Constitution of the Duchy of Holstein.

The present draft agrees in its general points with the draft of a constitutional law for the Duchy of Holstein laid before the States during their last session. This is the case, especially with §§ 2 to 5 inclusive, 12, 14, 15, 18 to 21 inclusive, 23, 26, and 27, in which only such changes of wording has taken place as is rendered necessary by the alteration of the name "Land States," which, in accordance with the repeated wish of the assembly, has been granted by his Majesty. In general, also, reference has been had to the minutes accompanying that former draft. The changes proposed in §§ 8, 11, and 22 of the former project, and contained in §§ 6, 13, and 25 of the present, are based on the petitions of the assembly. The newly added decisions contained in §§ 8, 10, and 22, as far as under present circumstances is practicable, are conceived in accordance with the proposals of the States, namely, with the corresponding paragraphs of the "Project for a common constitution for the Danish monarchy," worked out by the assembly in their last session.

In particular, the followed is to be remarked :—The §§ 1 and 2 of the last project, in as far as they regard the law of succession to the throne, and the relations with the German Diet, have not been again inserted. These regulations, as has been remarked in the minutes to that project, were only laid before the States with reference to the question whether they should have a place in the constitution of the Duchy of Holstein, as the regulations in themselves were entirely independent of the decisions of the assembly. If the assembly, however, has expressed in its protocol of the 11th March, 1859, that, from the insertion, in the constitution, of the passage relating to the succession, it did not follow that there was a subsequent agreement to it, on the part of the assembly, no importance can be attached to such a reservation; at the same time, sufficient reason has been found in this for removing the regulation in question out of the project, and it has also seemed right, from the remarks made by the Diet, *loco cit.*, about § 2 of the former project touching the relation to the German Diet, not to insert the regulations contained in this paragraph. But the first passage of the former § 1, in which the Duchy of Holstein was declared an independent part of the monarchy, has, in accordance with the wishes of the assembly, been retained, and again inserted in § 1 of the present project.

To meet as far as possible the wish, so repeatedly expressed on the part of the Diet, with reference to the substance of § 7 of the former project, in § 7 of the present the clause is left out that the courts of law have no jurisdiction over the acts of administration of public authorities; whereas in future the courts of law will, as a general rule, be authorized to determine as to the competency of such authorities. But for the settlement of disputes about competency, it has been thought necessary to retain the regulations of the former project. The new substance of § 11 aims at the civil equality of the subject, without reference to his religious persuasion. Such a regulation is in accordance with the more and more universally received doctrine of toleration, and is found in the constitutions of several German states, and does not, therefore require further explanation.

From this point of view it would also seem desirable that in this direction still further steps should be taken to carry out, in the Duchy of Holstein, the principle of unlimited freedom in the exercise of religion. With reference to the opposition which this step may encounter, it has, however, been deemed advisable not to insist on insertion in the draft of a regulation with such an object in view, but rather wait to ascertain whether, and how far an opinion is expressed in the assembly for a further development of religious freedom. The insertion of the above-mentioned regulation has made it requisite not to insert any more in § 24 (previously § 21) about the Christian religion as a condition of eligibility. The paragraphs 16 and 17 have been obliged to be altered in their wording, owing to the proposal for a provisorium which has been laid before the States. The addition to the closing portion of § 17 answers to the proposals made on the subject to the States. The final paragraph of the draft corresponds with § 24 of the previous draft. As there is at present no occasion to render more difficult possible modifications of the constitution, the regulations, as contained in this, appear to merit being preferred to those contained in the draft of a constitution proposed by the Diet. Furthermore, it is to be remarked that in the annexes of the constitution of the 11th June, 1854, besides the modifications introduced in the minutes to the former draft, page 8, the modifications indicated in the proposal of the assembly of the States of the 11th March, 1859, at the close of its draft of a constitution, will have to be made.

PUBLIC GENERAL STATUTES.

24° & 25° VICTORIÆ.

UNITED KINGDOM.

CAP. CXV.—*An Act for the Government of the Navy.* (6th August, 1861.)

THE Act is divided into seven parts. The 1st comprises articles of war relating to public worship; penalty for misconduct in the presence of the enemy; holding communication with the enemy; neglect of duty, mutiny insubordination, desertion and absence without leave; and other offences. The second part makes general provision in the power of court-martial to find the intent with which any offence is committed, &c. The third makes

[451]

regulations as to punishments. The fourth makes regulations for the constitution of courts-martial. The fifth relates to penal servitude and prisons. The sixth part has some supplementary provisions: and the seventh contains some saving clauses.

CAP. CXXVI.—*An Act to exempt the Volunteer Forces of Great Britain from the payment of Tolls.* (6th August, 1861.)

No dues to be demanded or taken at any pier, quay, turnpike, or other gate for any volunteer officer or soldier going to or returning from any place appointed for exercise, review, &c.; or for any horse or other beast, or carriage, cart, waggon, &c., employed in carrying or conveying any such volunteer officer or soldier on his march or on duty, and being in the uniform of his corps, or the arms or baggage of any such volunteer officer or soldier.

ENGLAND.

CAP. XIII.—*An Act to enable the Admiralty to acquire property for the enlargement of the Royal Marine Barracks in the parish of East Stonehouse, in the county of Devon.* (17th May, 1861.)

CAP. XLI.—*An Act to enable the Admiralty to acquire property for the enlargement of her Majesty's Dockyard at Chatham, in the county of Kent, and to embank part of the river Medway, and for other purposes connected therewith.* (22nd July, 1861.)

UNITED KINGDOM.

CAP. VII.—*An Act for punishing Mutiny and Desertion, and for the better payment of the Army and their quarters.* (18th April, 1861.)

CAP. VIII.—*An Act for the regulation of her Majesty's Royal Marine Forces while on shore.* (18th April, 1861.)

CAP. CXX.—*An Act to suspend the making of Lists and the Ballots for the Militia of the United Kingdom.* (6th August, 1861.)

CAP. CXXIX.—*An Act to enable her Majesty to accept the services of officers of the merchant service as officers of reserve to the Royal Navy.* (6th August, 1861.)

COLONIAL POSSESSIONS.

Statistical Tables relating to the Colonial and other Possessions of the United Kingdom for 1859.

INDIA: Colleges and Schools.—On the 30th April, 1859, there were in India 18,352 colleges and schools, with 244,860 children in attendance, and their united cost was 282,717*l*. **Forces.**—The royal troops were 90,216, the Indian 329,388, total, 419,504; of whom 114,883 were European, and 304,721 native. **Revenue and Expenditure.**—The revenue was 36,060,788*l*, and the expenditure, 43,590,794*l*. In the territories and departments under the immediate control of the Government of India the revenue was 2,755,937*l*, and the expenditure 18,888,448*l*; in Bengal the revenue was 12,472,881*l*, and the expenditure 4,313,812*l*; in the North-Western Provinces the revenue was 5,469,926*l*, and the expenditure 2,690,713*l*; in Madras the revenue was 6,259,845*l*, and the expenditure 7,511,255*l*; in Bombay the revenue was 6,200,354*l*, and the expenditure 8,155,889*l*; and in the Punjaub the revenue was 2,903,845*l*, and the expenditure 2,030,677*l*. The revenue consisted of 18,123,658*l* land; 51,975*l* excise; 1,422,846*l* sayer and abkarry; 111,247*l* muherpha: giving gross receipts 19,709,726*l*, and a net receipt of 17,523,980*l*. The mint produced 103,611*l*; the post-office, 101,595*l*; stamp duties, 565,551*l*; customs, 2,700,040*l*; salt, 1,986,641*l*; opium, 5,346,391*l*; miscellaneous, 3,305,314*l*: total, 31,633,123*l*. The expenditure was, in India—civil and political establishments, 4,061,649*l*; judicial and police charges, 3,514,542*l*; military, 21,081,339*l*; marine and pilotage, 820,837*l*; debt, 2,738,623*l*; other charges, collection of revenue, &c., 11,373,803*l*: total, 43,590,793*l*. Home charges—payments in England, 6,051,566*l*; value of stores sent from England to India, 1,414,570*l*: total, 51,056,929*l*.

Public Debt.—The total amount of Indian debt on the 30th April, 1859, was 66,082,031*l*; and in England, bond debt, 6,979,000*l*; debenture and other loans, 811,277*l*: total, 81,171,304*l*. Interest paid, 3,111,362*l*.

Tonnage.—Entered 19,883 vessels, 2,499,909 tons; cleared 19,717 vessels, 2,561,143 tons: total, 39,600 vessels, 5,061,052 tons; of which 7,940 vessels, 3,825,327 tons were European, and 31,660 vessels, 1,235,725 tons native. Of the Europeans 6,411 vessels, 2,947,809 tons were British, and 1,056 vessels, 483,817 tons were other countries.

Imports and Exports.—The value of imports was 34,545,650*l*, and of exports 30,532,298*l*. The imports consisted of 21,728,579*l* merchandise, and 12,817,071*l* treasure. They were distributed as follows:—Bengal—merchandise, 10,596,106*l*; treasure, 5,560,321*l*: total, 16,156,427*l*. Madras—merchandise, 1,792,531*l*; treasure, 845,869*l*: total, 2,638,400*l*. Bombay—merchandise, 9,339,942*l*; treasure, 6,410,881*l*: total, 15,750,823*l*. The imports were—From the United Kingdom, 19,759,189*l*; from China, 6,217,655*l*; from Suez, 2,819,280*l*; and the remainder from other countries. The exports from British India amounted to 36,532,298*l*, of which 29,862,871*l* were merchandise, and 669,427*l* treasure. The exports were as follows:—From Bengal, 14,515,938*l*; from Madras, 2,224,664*l*; from Bombay, 13,791,696*l*. The exports were divided as follows:—11,014,816*l* to the United Kingdom; 11,812,960*l* to China, and the remainder to other countries. The principal articles of export were opium, cotton raw, dyes, grain, seeds, &c.

Canada.—The population in 1852 was 1,842,265. The revenue 1,947,829*l.*, the expenditure 2,293,408*l.* The tonnage, sea and canal navigation, entered, 4,273,284 tons; cleared, 4,045,279 tons. The imports amounted to 6,990,659*l.*, and the exports to 5,159,788*l.* According to the tariff the imports were as follows:—3,203,315 *dols.* paid 30 per cent. duty *ad valorem*, 248,710 *dols.* paid 25 per cent., 14,321,066 *dols.* paid 20 and 15 per cent., 2,246,601 *dols.* paid 10 and 5 per cent., and 10,144,081 *dols.* were admitted free. Of the exports 468,000 *dols.* was the value of the produce of mines, 817,423 *dols.* of the produce of the sea, 9,663,962 *dols.* of the produce of the forest, 3,789,502 *dols.* animals and their products, 7,339,798 *dols.* agricultural products, 487,281 *dols.* manufactures, 110,732 *dols.* other articles; total, 22,680,812 *dols.*

New Brunswick.—According to the census in 1851 the population was 193,800, viz., 191,627 white, and 2,174 coloured. The revenue for 1859 was 160,107*l.*, and the expenditure 153,545*l.* The tonnage entered 3,455 vessels, 734,155 tons; and cleared 3,362 vessels, 748,773 tons. The value of imports was 1,416,034*l.*, and of exports 1,073,422*l.* The rate of wages were—domestic, 2*l.* 10*s.* to 3*l.* per month; predial, 2*l.* 10*s.* to 4*l.* per month; trades, 6*s.* to 8*s.* per day.

Nova Scotia.—In 1851 the population was 277,117, including 4,908 coloured persons and 1500 Indians, and there were in all 34,575 week-day scholars. The revenue was 139,788*l.*, and the expenditure 138,119*l.* The tonnage entered was 5120 vessels, 568,880 tons; and cleared 5,455 vessels, 579,579 tons. The value of imports was 1,620,191*l.*, and of exports 1,377,826*l.* The length of lines of railways constructed was 92½ miles. The total acreage of land granted was 5,826,603 acres, and ungranted 5,232,113 acres.

Prince Edward's Island.—The population in 1856 was 71,496. In 1859 the revenue was 27,404*l.*, and the expenditure 29,805*l.* There were entered 1,118 vessels, 79,742 tons; and cleared 1,107 vessels, 87,213 tons. The imports were 234,698*l.*, the exports 178,680*l.* The wages were—domestic, 20*l.*; predial, 20*l.*; and trades, 45*l.* per annum.

Newfoundland.—In 1857 the population was 122,638. In 1859 the revenue was 133,735*l.*, and the expenditure 145,310*l.* There were entered 1423 vessels, 209,413 tons; and cleared 1,278 vessels, 200,173 tons. The imports were 1,323,288*l.*, and the exports 1,357,113*l.* The wages were—domestic, 25*l.* to 35*l.*; predial, 25*l.* to 30*l.*; and trades, 8*s.* to 10*s.* a day.

Bermuda.—In 1851 the population was 10,982, of whom 4,569 were white, and 6,413 coloured. In 1859 the revenue was 16,765*l.*, the expenditure 18,181*l.* There were entered 195 vessels, 38,824 tons; and cleared 195 vessels, 39,106 tons. The value of imports was 166,914*l.*, and of exports 34,177*l.* The principal articles of export were arrow root, onions, potatoes. The wages were—domestic, 1*s.* 6*d.* per day; predial, 3*s.* per day; and trades, 6*s.* per day.

Honduras.—The population in 1858 was estimated at 19,000. In 1859 the revenue was 27,982*l.*, the expenditure 25,778*l.* There were entered 130 vessels, 26,497 tons; and cleared 113 vessels, 24,952 tons. The value of imports was 175,293*l.*, and of exports 288,161*l.* The principal articles of exports were cochineal, cocoa nuts, logwood, mahogany, and sarsaparilla. The rates of wages were—domestic, 1*l.* 8*s.* per month; predial, 2*l.* per month; and trades, 5*l.* per month.

West Indies.—*Bahamas.*—In 1854 the population was 27,619, of whom

[454]

5,499 were white, and 22,117 coloured. In 1859 the revenue was 31,849*l.*, the expenditure 34,871*l.* There were entered 351 vessels, 30,129 tons; and cleared 365 vessels, 30,184 tons. The value of imports was 213,166*l.*, and of exports 141,896*l.* The principal articles of exports were coffee, cotton wool, fruit, salt, sponge, sugar. The rates of wages were—domestic male, 1*l.* 5*s.* to 2*l.* 10*s.* per month; predial, 1*s.* 3*d.* to 3*s.* per day; and trades, 4*s.* to 8*s.* per day.

Turk's Islands.—The population in 1850 was 3,250. In 1859 the revenue was 9,793*l.*, the expenditure 9,544*l.* There were entered 422 vessels, 58,340 tons; and cleared 449 vessels, 60,609 tons. The value of imports was 42,655*l.*, and of exports 33,488*l.* The principal article exported was salt. The wages were—domestic, 1*l.* per month; predial, 3*s.* per day; trades, 5*s.* per day.

Jamaica.—In 1854 the population was 377,433, of whom 15,776 were white, and 361,657 coloured. In 1859 the revenue was 279,935*l.*, and the expenditure 262,142*l.* There were entered 436 vessels, 81,692 tons; and cleared 437 vessels, 83,124 tons. The value of imports was 853,015*l.*, and of exports 961,007*l.* The principal articles exported were coffee, ginger, pimento, rum, sugar, wood, logwood. The wages were—domestic, 5*s.* to 12*s.* per week; predial, 1*s.* 6*d.* per day; and trades, 2*s.* to 4*s.* per day.

Virgin Island, Tortola.—In 1859 the population was 6,053, of whom 201 were white, 4,486 coloured, and 1,366 mixed blood. The revenue was 1,993*l.*, the expenditure 1,662*l.* There were entered 1,597 vessels, 6,263 tons; and cleared 1,576 vessels, 5,675 tons. The value of imports was 10,075*l.*, and of exports 11,789*l.* The principal articles of exports were cattle, charcoal, live stock, and sugar. The wages were—domestic, 12*s.* 6*d.* per month; predial, 1*s.* per diem; and trades, 3*s.* per diem.

St. Christopher.—The population in 1856 was 20,741. In 1859 the revenue was 17,845*l.*, the expenditure 18,106*l.* There were entered 619 vessels, 27,545 tons; and cleared 613 vessels, 27,043 tons. The value of imports was 110,836*l.*, and of exports 136,511*l.* The principal articles of exports were flour, meal, molasses, rum, and sugar. The rates of wages were—domestic, 12*s.* 6*d.* to 25*s.* per month; predial, 6*d.* to 1*s.* per diem; trades, 1*s.* 6*d.* to 2*s.* 6*d.* per diem.

Nevis.—The population in 1844 was 9,571. In 1859 the revenue was 4,721*l.*, and the expenditure 4,683*l.* There were entered 230 vessels, 11,546 tons; and cleared 232 vessels, 11,564 tons. The imports were 34,748*l.*, and the exports 48,186*l.* The principal articles of exports were molasses, rum, and sugar.

Antigua.—In 1856 the population was 35,408, of whom 2,172 were white, and 33,236 coloured. In 1859 the revenue was 34,446*l.*, and the expenditure 33,606*l.* There were entered 566 vessels, 33,062 tons; and cleared 580 vessels, 34,728 tons. The value of imports was 203,998*l.*, and of exports 289,064*l.* Sugar, rum, and molasses constituted the chief articles of exports. The wages were—domestic, 3*s.* to 6*s.* per week; predial, 8*d.* to 1*s.* per day; and trades, 1*s.* 4*d.* to 2*s.* per day.

Montserrat.—In 1859 the population was 7,053. The revenue was 3,248*l.*, and the expenditure 3,321*l.* There were entered 170 vessels, 7,141 tons; and cleared 167 vessels, 7,065 tons. The value of imports was 19,718*l.*, and of exports 16,746*l.* The principal articles of exports were cattle, molasses, rum, and sugar. The wages were—domestic, 8*s.* to 16*s.* per month; predial, 1*s.* per day; and trades, 3*s.* per day.

Dominica.—In 1855 the population was 25,236, of whom 847 were white, and 14,287 coloured. In 1859 the revenue was 14,211*l.*, and the expenditure 13,523*l.* There were entered 324 vessels, 9,034 tons; and cleared 325 vessels, 8,891 tons. The value of imports was 66,506*l.*, and of exports 96,861*l.* Cocoa, coffee, molasses, rum, and sugar were the articles exported. The wages were—domestic, 18*s.* per month; predial, 10*d.* per diem; and trades, 2*s.* per diem.

St. Lucia.—In 1858 the population was 26,471, of whom 814 were white, and 25,446 coloured. In 1859 the revenue was 12,832*l.*, the expenditure 12,499*l.* There were entered 167 vessels, 10,620 tons; and cleared 166 vessels, 10,635 tons. The value of imports was 103,973*l.*, and of exports 101,879*l.* Cocoa, molasses, rum, and sugar were the chief articles exported. The wages were—domestic, 12*s.* to 30*s.* per month; predial, 10*d.* to 1*s.* 3*d.* per diem; and trades, 2*s.* to 4*s.* per diem.

St. Vincent.—In 1857 the population was 30,128. In 1859 the revenue was 19,911*l.*, and the expenditure 23,825*l.* There were entered 328 vessels, 19,272 tons; and cleared 334 vessels, 18,592 tons. The value of imports was 131,451*l.*, and of exports 178,990*l.* The principal articles exported were arrow root, flour, molasses, rum, shrub, and sugar. The wages were—domestic, 3 *dols.* to 10 *dols.* for twenty days; predial, 3 *dols.* to 4 *dols.* per day.

Barbadoes.—In 1851 the population was 135,939, of whom 15,824 were white, and 120,115 coloured. In 1859 the revenue was 87,595*l.*, and the expenditure 80,353*l.* There were entered 1,109 vessels, 156,789 tons; and cleared 1,111 vessels, 128,892 tons. The value of imports was 1,049,237*l.*, and of exports 1,225,572*l.* The principal articles exported were dried fish, flour, linens, and cottons, meat salted, molasses, rice, rum, and sugar. The wages were—domestic, 1*l.* 5*s.* per month; predial, 10*d.*; and trades, 2*s.* 6*d.* per diem.

Grenada.—The estimated population in 1859 was 35,517. The revenue was 16,948*l.*, and the expenditure 19,403*l.* There were entered 375 vessels, 22,412 tons; and cleared 436 vessels, 21,704 tons. The value of imports was 124,660*l.*, and of exports 131,307*l.* The principal articles of exports were cocoa, cotton, rum, and sugar. In 1859 there was produced 10,965,745 *lbs.* of sugar, 285,536 gallons of rum, 21,905 *lbs.* of cotton. The wages were—domestic, 16*s.* to 30*s.* per month; predial, 2*s.* 6*d.* to 5*s.* per week of five days, besides house and grounds; and trades, 26*s.* to 80*s.* per month.

Tobago.—The estimated population in 1859 was 16,363. The revenue was 9,110*l.*, and the expenditure 9,152*l.* There were entered 101 vessels, 8,126 tons; and cleared 101 vessels, 8,177 tons. The imports were 57,691*l.*, the exports 77,897*l.* The principal articles exported were molasses, rum, and sugar. The wages were—domestic, 1*l.* to 1*l.* 4*s.* per month; predial, 6*d.* to 9*d.* per day; and trades, 1*s.* 4*d.* to 2*s.* 6*d.* per day.

Trinidad.—The population in 1851 was 68,000. In 1859 the revenue was 167,103*l.*, the expenditure 187,047*l.* There were entered 832 vessels, 104,046 tons; and cleared 824 vessels, 95,322 tons. The value of imports was 734,902*l.*, and of exports 820,606*l.* The principal articles produced were sugar, cocoa, cotton, coffee, rum, molasses, asphaltum, and indigo. The wages were—domestic, 2*l.* 10*s.* per month; predial, 1*s.*; and trades, 4*s.* 2*d.* per diem.

British Guiana.—In 1851 the population was 127,695. In 1859 the

revenue was 275,619*l.*, and the expenditure 263,195*l.* There were entered 715 vessels, 141,705 tons; and cleared 702 vessels, 126,664 tons. The value of imports was 1,179,901*l.*, and of exports 1,228,843*l.* The principal articles exported were sugar, rum, and molasses. The wages were—domestic, 2*l.* 2*s.* per month; predial, 2*s.* to 5*s.* per diem; and trades, 3*s.* to 6*s.* per diem.

Falkland Islands.—In 1859 the population was 539. The revenue was 7,657*l.*, the expenditure 5,139*l.* The value of imports was 13,890*l.*, and of exports 6,982*l.*

Australia.—*New South Wales.*—In 1859 the population was 336,872. The revenue was 2,339,491*l.*, the expenditure 1,858,167*l.* There were entered 1,250 vessels, 363,121 tons; and cleared 1,299 vessels, 387,015 tons. The value of imports was 6,597,053*l.*, and of exports 4,768,049*l.* There were 247,543 acres of land under crop, and 27,438,360 acres of land uncultivated. There were 214,634 horses, 2,190,976 horned cattle, 5,162,671 sheep, and 119,701 swine. The wages were—carpenters, 80*l.* to 85*l.*; smiths, 80*l.* to 83*l.*; wheelwrights, 77*l.*; bricklayers, 83*l.* to 87*l.*; masons, 87*l.* to 90*l.*; cooks, plain, 25*l.* to 30*l.*; housemaids, 16*l.* to 18*l.* per annum.

Victoria.—The population was 530,262. In the mining district of the gold fields there were 201,422 persons. The revenue was 3,257,724*l.*, the expenditure 2,754,744*l.* There were entered 2,026 vessels, 634,131 tons; and cleared 2,056 vessels, 661,518 tons. The value of imports was 15,622,891*l.*, and of exports, including gold, 13,867,859*l.* The gold exported was 9,122,037 ounces, and specie 1,305,981*l.* There were in Victoria 69,288 horses, 683,534 horned cattle, 5,794,127 sheep, and 50,965 pigs.

South Australia.—The population on the 2nd April, 1860, was 117,967. In 1859 the revenue was 669,683*l.*, the expenditure 620,756*l.* There were entered 429 vessels, 114,951 tons; and cleared 418 vessels, 108,690 tons. The value of imports was 1,507,495*l.*, and of exports 1,655,876*l.* There were 40,471 horses, 3,000,000 sheep, and 43,000 pigs.

Western Australia.—The population in 1859 was 14,823. The revenue was 57,943*l.*, the expenditure 54,919*l.* There were entered 111 vessels, 63,414 tons; and cleared 103 vessels, 57,665 tons. The value of imports was 125,315*l.*, and of exports 93,037*l.* The wages were—domestic, 12*l.* to 18*l.* per annum; predial, 12*l.* to 40*l.* per annum; trades, 7*s.* to 10*s.* per diem.

Tasmania.—The population in 1859 was 86,596. The revenue was 429,425*l.*, the expenditure 422,587*l.* There were entered 835 vessels 120,906 tons; and cleared 857 vessels, 125,089 tons. The value of imports was 1,163,307*l.*, and of exports 1,193,898*l.* There were 20,559 horses, 1,697,199 sheep, 32,008 swine, and 2,819 goats. The wages were—domestic, 35*l.* to 40*l.* per annum; bricklayers, 8*s.* to 13*s.* per week; carpenters, 8*s.* to 10*s.*

New Zealand.—The European population was 73,343, and the native population 56,049. The revenue was 459,549*l.* There were entered 438 vessels, 136,580 tons; and cleared 398 vessels, 120,392 tons. The value of imports was 1,551,030*l.*, and of exports 551,484*l.*

Hong Kong.—The population was 86,941. The revenue was 65,225*l.*, and the expenditure 66,109*l.* There were entered 1,159 vessels, 626,536 tons; and cleared 1,021 vessels, 538,104 tons. In 1859 there were imported 27,580 chests of opium. The wages were—domestic, 1*l.* 5*s.* per month; and predial, 10*s.* 6*d.* per month.

Labuan.—The population was 1,774. The revenue was 6,707*l.*, the

[457]

expenditure 6,591*l*. There were entered 24 vessels, 4,700 tons; and cleared 23 vessels, 4,568 tons. The value of imports was 30,724*l*, and of exports 6,358*l*. The principal articles exported were bees' wax, birds' nests, camphor, hides, lupul, pepper, and sago.

Ceylon.—The population was 1,791,272. The revenue was 747,037*l*, the expenditure 698,268*l*. There were entered 2,865 vessels, 352,721 tons; and cleared 2,871 vessels, 357,473 tons. The value of imports was 3,474,487*l*, and of exports 2,524,752*l*. The wages were—in the western provinces, domestic, 6*d*. a day; in other provinces, 1*l* to 2*l* 5*s*. per month; predial, 15*s*. to 1*l* 10*d*. per month; trades, western provinces, 6*d*. per day.

Mauritius.—In 1859 the population was 298,569. The revenue was 609,517*l* and the expenditure 572,479*l*. There were entered 731 vessels, 304,616 tons; and cleared 738 vessels, 308,642 tons. The value of imports was 2,440,821*l*, and of exports 2,559,700*l*. The wages were—domestic, 1*l*. per month; predial, 15*s*. 7½*d*.; trades, 1*l* 8*s*. 11½*d*. per month.

Natal.—The population was 160,170. The revenue was 50,905*l*, the expenditure 49,917*l*. There were entered 52 vessels, 10,494 tons; and cleared 49 vessels, 9,818 tons. The value of imports was 199,917*l*, and of exports 110,415*l*.

Cape of Good Hope.—The population in 1856 was 267,096. In 1859 the revenue was 650,925*l*; the expenditure 609,325*l*. There were entered 1,117 vessels, 372,054 tons; and cleared 1,094 vessels, 364,352 tons. The value of imports was 2,579,359*l*, and of exports 2,021,371*l*. The principal articles exported were aloes, ostrich feathers, ivory, sea elephants' oil, skins, wine, wool, &c. In 1858 there were 143,039 horses, 6,511,971 sheep, and 1,260,809 goats.

St. Helena.—The population was 5,490. The revenue was 20,736*l*, and the expenditure 20,176*l*. There were entered 244 vessels, 131,132 tons; and cleared 55 vessels, 21,020 tons. The value of imports was 120,181*l*, and of exports 21,465*l*.

Gold Coast.—The population in 1858 was 161,346. In 1859 the revenue was 8,286*l*, the expenditure 7,568*l*. There were entered 550 vessels, 122,884 tons; and cleared the same. The value of imports was 114,596*l*, and of exports 118,563*l*.

Sierra Leone.—The population in 1858 was 38,318. The revenue in 1859 was 31,432*l*, and the expenditure 29,147*l*. There were entered 271 vessels, 37,994 tons; and cleared 251 vessels, 43,277 tons. The value of imports was 169,707*l*, and of exports 247,261*l*.

Gambia.—The population in 1851 was 6,939. In 1859 the revenue was 15,599*l*, and the expenditure 16,962*l*. The value of imports was 76,150*l*, and of exports 110,364*l*.

Gibraltar.—The population in 1856 was 17,750. The revenue was 32,500*l*, and the expenditure 28,369*l*. There were entered 4,218 vessels, 903,821 tons; and cleared 4,169 vessels, 893,968 tons.

Malta.—The population was 145,802. The revenue was 147,385*l*, and the expenditure 142,347*l*. There were entered 3,119 vessels, 481,793 tons; and cleared 3,081 vessels, 480,790 tons. The value of imports was 2,428,909*l*, and of exports 1,175,794*l*.

Ionian Islands.—The population was 233,973. The revenue was 130,262*l*, and the expenditure 149,363*l*. There were entered 3,500 vessels, 421,590 tons; and cleared 3,615 vessels, 422,525 tons. The value of imports was 1,306,303*l*, and of exports 649,057*l*.

PUBLIC GENERAL STATUTES.

24° & 25° VICTORIÆ.

SERIES F.—BRITISH INDIA, COLONIES, &c.

UNITED KINGDOM.

CAP. LII.—*An Act to empower the Governors of the several Australian Colonies to regulate the number of Passengers to be carried in Vessels plying between Ports in those Colonies.* (1st August, 1861.)

The Governors of the several Australian colonies may proclaim rules for determining the number of passengers to be carried, and the decks whereon they are to be carried, in ships plying between the Australian ports.

CAP. XXV.—*An Act to enable the Secretary of State in Council of India to raise money in the United Kingdom for the service of the Government of India.* (28th June, 1861.)

Power was given to the Secretary of State in Council of India to raise any sum not exceeding four millions, by the creation of stock bearing interest; the whole amount charged on, and payable out of, the revenues of India.

CAP. XLIV.—*An Act to remove doubts respecting the authority of the Legislature of Queensland, and to annex certain territories to the Colony of South Australia, and for other purposes.* (22nd July, 1861.)

So much of the colony of New South Wales, being to the south of the 26th degree of south latitude, as lies between the western boundary of South Australia and the 129th degree of east longitude, to be detached from the colony of New South Wales, and annexed to the colony of South Australia. Provision was made for determining the boundaries, and also for providing a mode of apportioning the public debt, in the event of any territory being separated from any Australian colony.

CAP. LIV.—*An Act to confirm certain appointments in India, and to amend the Law concerning the Civil Service there.* (6th August, 1861.)

Persons not covenanted civil servants may, under special circumstances, be appointed to such offices, subject to certain restrictions.

CAP. LXXIV.—*An Act to render lawful the Enlistment of Persons transferred from the Indian to the General Forces of Her Majesty, and to provide in certain respects for the rights of such persons.* (6th August, 1861.)

Enlistment of soldiers transferred from the Indian to the general forces of her Majesty to be valid for the unexpired portion of the service of such soldiers. Persons so transferred to be accounted natural-born subjects for purposes of military service. No enlistment in India invalid by reason of the absence of a warrant from the Secretary-at-War, or because made out of her Majesty's dominions.

[459]

CAP. CIV.—*An Act for establishing High Courts of Judicature in India.*
(6th August, 1861.)

High Courts may be established in the several presidencies of India. The High Courts at Bengal, Madras, and Bombay to consist of as many judges, not exceeding fifteen, as her Majesty may appoint. The judges must be barristers of not less than five years' standing, members of the covenanted civil service of not less than ten years, persons who have held judicial office not inferior to that of principal sudder, ameer, or judge of a Small Cause Court for five years, or persons who have been pleaders of a Sudder Court for ten years. Existing judges of Supreme Court and Court of Sudder Dewanny Adalut to be the first judges of the High Court. The High Court to have civil, criminal, admiralty, and the admiralty, ecclesiastical, intestate, and matrimonial jurisdiction, and to have the same jurisdiction as the Supreme Courts of Calcutta, Madras, and Bombay over the inhabitants of such parts of India. Her Majesty may also establish a High Court in the North-western Provinces.

CAP. LXVII.—*An Act to make better provision for the Constitution of the Council of the Governor-General in India, and for the local Government of the several Presidencies and Provinces of India, and for the temporary Government of India, in the event of a vacancy in the office of Governor-General.* (1st August, 1861.)

The Council of the Governor-General to be composed of five members, three of whom to be appointed by the Secretary of State for India in Council, with the concurrence of a majority of members present at a meeting, and two, one of whom shall be a barrister or a member of the Faculty of Advocates in Scotland, and the Commander-in-Chief of her Majesty's forces to be an extraordinary member of the Council. In addition to these, other members may be nominated, not less than six nor more than twelve, for the purpose of making laws and regulations. The Governor-General to make rules for the conduct of such meeting. The Crown has always power to disallow the laws and regulations passed by the Council, and assented to by the Governor-General.

CAP. CXVIII.—*An Act to enable the Secretary of State in Council of India to raise money in the United Kingdom, for the service of the Government of India.* (6th August, 1861.)

Power was given to the Secretary of State in Council of India to raise any sum not exceeding five millions, to be charged on, and payable out of, the revenues of India.

POPULATION.

Return of the following Information in respect of each Parish or part of Parish in England and Wales, within the limits of any City or Parliamentary Borough, for the Year ended at Lady-day, 1856. (Mr. Villiers.) February 8th, 1861. (13.)

THIS return is here given for each city and borough, without distinguishing the parishes :—

Boroughs.	Population. 1851.	Gross Rental, Lady-day, 1856.	Rateable Value, Lady-day, 1856.	Number of Houses rated to the Relief of the Poor.
ENGLAND.				
Bedford	11,693	£ 40,383	£ 35,948	2,544
Abington	5,954	14,119	11,300	1,264
Reading	21,456	84,424	63,358	4,781
Wallingford	8,064	48,562	40,472	1,146
Windsor	9,596	35,651	29,108	1,520
Aylesbury	26,794	103,178	91,226	4,290
Buckingham	8,069	35,675	30,586	1,719
Wycombe	7,179	21,882	18,960	1,540
Great Marlow	6,523	27,195	23,081	931
Cambridge	27,815	127,329	98,579	5,663
Chester	27,766	80,688	63,824	5,834
Macclesfield	39,048	86,851	78,442	10,221
Stockport	53,835	144,558	111,562	12,285
Bodmin	6,337	22,256	17,781	1,139
Helston	7,328	16,918	15,060	1,881
Launceston	6,005	23,714	19,726	980
Liskeard	6,204	18,584	14,796	1,060
Penryn and Falmouth	13,656	30,934	24,438	2,189
St. Ives	9,872	22,512	18,923	1,870
Truro	16,733	29,888	20,949	2,693
Carlisle	26,310	75,226	59,423	6,800
Cockermouth	7,275	25,299	21,274	1,725
Whitehaven	18,916	45,602	39,072	4,519
Derby	40,609	151,673	126,282	9,671
Ashburton	3,432	13,469	9,819	614
Barnstaple	11,371	35,253	24,841	2,324
Dartmouth	4,508	14,672	10,987	1,091
Devonport	50,159	114,737	87,879	5,288
Exeter	40,688	180,795	139,100	7,501
Honiton	3,427	13,442	9,719	733
Plymouth	52,221	178,281	115,980	6,863
Tavistock (port)	8,086	31,271	29,311	908
Tiverton	11,144	54,444	36,536	2,124
Totnes	4,419	15,583	12,179	833
Bridport	7,566	19,966	16,218	1,369
Dorchester	6,394	20,134	14,571	1,106
Lyme Regis	3,516	13,221	10,198	814
Poole	9,255	32,207	21,526	2,365
Shaftesbury	9,404	43,148	37,300	1,893
Wareham	7,218	27,102	20,673	954
Dorset	9,458	35,826	26,690	1,835
Durham	13,188	31,071	24,581	2,082
Gateshead	25,568	73,556	57,749	3,441
South Shields	26,974	76,793	57,411	4,138
Sunderland	67,394	209,117	163,841	10,300
Colchester	19,443	64,016	48,475	4,779
Harwich	4,451	12,616	10,328	814
Maldon	5,883	20,350	16,480	1,278
Bristol	137,653	535,873	459,659	23,200

SERIES G.

2 M

[461]

Boroughs.	Population. 1851.	Gross Rental, Lady-day, 1856.	Rateable Value, Lady-day, 1856.	Number of Houses rated to the Relief of the Poor.
		£	£	
Cheltenham	35,051	190,000	164,900	6,837
Cirencester	6,096	20,276	17,297	1,109
Gloucester	17,572	73,262	56,316	3,265
Stroud	36,535	119,560	99,312	9,252
Tewesbury	5,878	22,019	16,669	1,707
Hereford	12,108	54,183	43,854	2,742
Leominster	5,214	26,895	22,714	1,354
Hertford	6,605	24,266	18,212	1,291
Huntington	6,219	24,225	21,241	1,335
Canterbury	18,398	64,630	51,018	3,807
Chatham	28,424	53,279	44,034	4,930
Dover	22,244	86,877	75,248	3,916
Greenwich	105,784	393,091	320,282	18,037
Hythe	13,164	63,387	54,586	2,843
Maidstone	20,801	95,390	79,349	3,892
Rochester	14,938	46,497	36,571	3,003
Sandwich	12,710	38,776	28,312	2,865
Ashton-under-Lyne	29,791	81,975	65,789	6,421
Blackburn	46,536	126,373	118,476	10,045
Bolton	61,171	178,882	149,078	13,184
Bury	31,262	112,884	86,014	7,274
Clitheroe	11,480	34,578	29,612	2,463
Lancaster	16,168	50,435	44,289	3,239
Liverpool	375,955	1,680,824	1,527,831	59,708
Manchester	316,213	1,427,600	1,189,086	69,538
Oldham	72,357	192,594	179,818	15,170
Preston	69,542	211,600	194,235	12,448
Rochdale	29,195	110,096	97,747	7,391
Salford	85,108	348,841	309,276	19,622
Warrington	23,363	65,909	59,101	4,887
Wigan	31,941	77,762	65,882	6,216
Leicester	60,584	174,181	130,142	14,415
Boston	17,518	51,076	46,237	3,831
Grantham	10,873	40,389	31,636	2,085
Great Grimsby	12,263	41,951	35,438	2,660
Lincoln	17,536	63,273	52,637	4,089
Stamford	8,933	23,985	21,053	7,668
London City	127,869	1,193,412	986,472	16,682
Finsbury	323,772	1,624,296	1,291,274	38,298
Marylebone	370,957	2,442,611	2,160,417	42,726
Tower Hamlets	539,111	2,231,273	1,597,795	85,513
Westminster	241,611	2,197,838	1,907,836	26,987
Monmouth	26,512	129,059	96,632	4,938
Great Yarmouth	30,879	88,701	61,833	8,120
King's Lynn	19,355	56,733	39,826	4,203
Norwich	68,195	199,469	143,023	16,000
Thetford	4,075	12,907	10,205	903
Northampton	26,657	70,236	57,163	5,244
Peterborough	8,672	37,940	32,288	1,884
Berwick-on-Tweed	15,094	44,996	41,265	1,129
Morpeth	10,012	34,533	31,365	1,459
Newcastle-on-Tyne	87,784	301,368	254,744	10,740
Tynemouth	29,170	77,628	62,827	3,248
East Retford	46,637	280,305	233,495	9,003
Newark	11,330	32,739	25,733	2,613
Nottingham	57,407	205,322	181,649	13,020
Banbury	8,715	39,486	31,083	2,102
Oxford	27,843	143,942	115,730	6,082
Woodstock	7,983	33,802	29,281	1,525
Bridgenorth	7,610	32,363	28,271	1,667
Ludlow	5,376	21,557	16,840	1,496
Shrewsbury	19,681	80,332	76,773	4,427

POPULATION.

243

Boroughs.	Population. 1851.	Gross Rental. Lady-day, 1856.	Rateable Value, Lady-day, 1856.	Number of Houses rated to the Relief of the Poor.
Wenlock	20,588	£ 79,821	£ 71,395	4,025
Bath	54,240	273,482	232,733	8,153
Bridgewater	10,317	28,747	19,638	2,182
Frome	10,148	25,597	18,448	2,272
Taunton	14,176	51,478	36,352	2,994
Andover	5,395	22,467	18,509	981
Christchurch	7,495	44,755	34,431	1,500
Lymington	5,282	20,565	16,818	1,048
Newport	8,047	27,738	23,761	1,596
Portsmouth	72,096	195,001	170,395	15,278
Southampton	35,305	187,153	128,728	6,776
Winchester	13,704	50,203	42,042	2,352
Lichfield	7,012	27,700	24,117	1,464
Newcastle-under-Lyne	10,569	25,667	24,226	2,450
Stafford	11,829	26,211	23,583	2,306
Stoke-upon-Trent	84,027	216,226	182,147	18,447
Tamworth	8,655	37,179	5,601	1,847
Walsall	25,680	92,652	72,238	6,363
Wolverhampton	119,748	360,790	298,409	27,513
Bury St. Edmunds	13,900	49,475	37,737	3,063
Eye	7,531	7,499	39,818	31,305
Ipswich	32,914	112,381	87,803	8,423
Guildford	6,740	23,776	19,939	1,494
Lambeth	251,345	1,060,410	864,781	43,000
Southwark	172,863	676,947	536,290	25,441
Brighton	69,673	458,775	382,259	13,628
Chichester	8,662	29,126	24,265	1,783
Hastings	17,011	106,197	86,165	3,154
Lewes	9,533	34,612	29,667	1,860
Medhurst	7,021	29,936	23,189	1,346
New Shoreham	30,553	153,737	123,544	5,463
Rye	8,541	46,606	39,850	1,558
Birmingham	232,841	988,563	782,764	67,194
Coventry	36,812	124,359	107,074	8,917
Warwick	10,973	47,290	36,537	2,406
Kendal	11,829	33,721	29,340	2,592
Cricklade	35,503	255,622	204,262	6,725
Devizes	6,554	21,073	19,959	1,434
Malmesbury	6,998	36,269	32,451	1,328
Salisbury	11,657	39,183	38,845	2,617
Westbury	7,029	29,576	22,964	1,623
Wilton	8,607	58,248	46,263	1,318
Bewdley	7,318	26,196	21,417	1,187
Droitwich	7,096	52,186	45,032	1,486
Dudley	37,962	86,571	60,663	11,200
Kidderminster	18,462	41,394	38,991	3,873
Worcester	27,528	90,450	76,512	5,604
Beverley	10,058	44,857	41,731	2,443
Kingston-on-Hull	84,690	291,533	225,361	18,848
York	40,359	136,547	112,117	9,524
Scarborough	12,915	59,081	47,836	3,493
Whitby	10,989	31,053	27,883	3,120
Bradford	103,778	336,508	262,610	23,061
Halifax	33,127	108,996	82,763	6,711
Huddersfield	30,880	120,041	95,362	6,432
Leeds	172,270	548,198	457,792	39,991
Sheffield	135,310	478,304	356,473	34,665
Wakefield	22,057	69,476	58,602	5,764
WALES	267,057	863,252	691,492	84,383
Total, including other smaller Boroughs	7,432,587	31,315,595	25,737,056	1,400,237

[463]

PUBLIC GENERAL STATUTES.

24° & 25° VICTORIA, 1861.

SERIES G.—POPULATION, MUNICIPAL, &c.

UNITED KINGDOM.

CAP. CXIV.—*An Act to amend the Law with respect to Wills of Personal Estate made by British Subjects.* (6th August, 1861.)

Wills made out of the kingdom, as regards personal estate, to be admitted, if made according to the laws of the place where made. Wills made in the kingdom to be admitted, if made according to local usage or executed according to the forms required by the laws for the time being in force in that part of the United Kingdom where the same is made. No will to be held revoked by reason of any change of domicile of the person making the same.

CAP. CXXI.—*An Act to amend the Law in relation to the Wills and Domicile of British subjects dying whilst resident abroad, and of foreign subjects dying whilst resident within her Majesty's dominions.* (6th August, 1861.)

No British subject dying in a foreign country to be deemed to have acquired a domicile, unless resident there for one year immediately preceding his or her death; and for all purposes of estate or intestate succession shall retain the domicile he or she possessed at the time of his or her going to reside in such foreign country. No foreign subject dying in Great Britain or Ireland to be deemed to have acquired a domicile, unless resident therein for one year immediately preceding his or her death. This, however, does not extend to foreigners who have obtained letters of naturalization. When subjects of foreign States shall die in her Majesty's dominions, and there be no persons to administer to their estates, the consuls of such States may administer.

GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND.

CAP. LXXVII.—*An Act to indemnify such Persons in the United Kingdom as have omitted to qualify themselves for Offices and Employments, and to extend the time limited for those purposes respectively.* (6th August, 1861.)

CAP. CXXII.—*An Act to continue the Corrupt Practices Act, 1854.* (6th August, 1861.)

CAP. CXXX.—*An Act for amending an Act passed in the last Session of Parliament to amend the Law concerning the making, keeping, and carriage of Gunpowder and compositions of an explosive nature, and concerning the manufacture, sale, and use of Fireworks.* (6th August, 1861.)

All powers of granting licences to vest in the justices in petty sessions assembled.

GREAT BRITAIN.

CAP. LXV.—*An Act to continue the Survey of Great Britain, Berwick-upon-Tweed, and the Isle of Man.* (1st August, 1861.)

ENGLAND.

CAP. IX.—*An Act to amend the Law relating to the Conveyance of Land for Charitable Uses.* (17th May, 1861.)

No future deed for charitable uses to be void by reason of its not being indented, or of specified stipulations for the donor's benefit, or as to copyhold for want of deed. No part deed for charitable uses upon valuable consideration to be void for any reason, if enrolled in Chancery.

CAP. XVI.—*An Act to render valid Marriages solemnized in Trinity Church, Rainow, and in other Churches and Chapels.* (17th May, 1861.)

CAP. XXII.—*An Act for confirming a scheme of the Charity Commissioners for certain Charities in the town and parish of Burford, in the county of Oxford.* (28th June, 1861.)

CAP. XXIII.—*An Act for confirming a scheme of the Charity Commissioners for certain Charities in the Borough of Reading.* (28th June, 1861.)

CAP. XXXIII.—*An Act to enable the Commissioners of her Majesty's Works to acquire additional Land for the purposes of the Public Offices Extension Act of 1859.* (11th July, 1861.)

CAP. XXXIX.—*An Act to confirm certain provisional Orders under the Local Government Act (1858) relating to the Districts of Brighton, East Coves, Preston, Morpeth, Bromsgrove, and Durham, and for other purposes in relation thereto.* (22nd July, 1861.)

CAP. XL.—*An Act to make further provision for the Management of her Majesty's Forest of Dean, and of the Mines and Quarries therein, and in the Hundred of Saint Briavels, in the county of Gloucester.* (22nd July, 1861.)

CAP. XLII.—*An Act to continue the Duties levied on Coal and Wine by the Corporation of London.* (22nd July, 1861.)

Continuation of the duty of five shillings a tun on wine till 1872, and of the duty on coals until 1872. The Metropolitan police district substituted for the London district. Application of the same to the execution of improvements in the metropolis.

CAP. LV.—*An Act to amend the Laws regarding the Removal of the Poor and the Contribution of Parishes to the Common Fund in Unions.* (1st August, 1861.)

Three years to be substituted for five in the 9th and 10th Vict., c. 6, s. 1, and residence in a union shall be equivalent to residence in a parish. Where a child under sixteen years residing with its surviving parent is left an orphan, and such parent at the time of death has acquired an exemption from removal by reason of a continued residence, such orphan is, if not otherwise irremovable, exempt from removal in like manner and to the same extent as if it had then acquired for itself an exemption from removal by residence.

CAP. LXI.—*An Act to amend the Local Government Act.* (1st August, 1861.)

Every local authority invested with powers of town government may adopt any part of the Local Government Act. The local board may exercise the powers conceded by the Public Health Act, &c.

CAP. LXXV.—*An Act for amending the Municipal Corporation Act.* (6th August, 1861.)

Boroughs having a separate commission of the peace to be deemed towns corporate, for the purposes of the Alehouse Licensing Act. Provision of 22nd and 23rd Vict., c. 56, as to appointment of inspectors of weights and measures extended to boroughs having a separate commission of the peace.

CAP. LXXXVI.—*An Act to amend the Law relating to the Removal of Poor Persons to Ireland.* (6th August, 1861.)

The warrant of removal must be signed in petty sessions, or by a police magistrate. And a copy of the warrant must be sent to the guardians of the place to which the removal is to be made. The guardians of the poor of the union at the port may forward the pauper to the place of destination, and recover the costs from the board of guardians in England.

CAP. LXXXVII.—*An Act to amend the Metropolitan Building Act, 1855.* (6th August, 1861.)

The Act not to apply to the buildings to be erected with the sanction of the Commissioners for the Exhibition of 1851, or any lands belonging to them.

CAP. LXXIX.—*An Act to amend the Metropolis Gas Fct.* (6th August, 1861.)

Powers conferred on justices of the peace in so far as they relate to the metropolis transferred to the Metropolitan Board of Works.

CAP. LXXXVIII.—*An Act to vest in the Commissioners of Her Majesty's Works and Public Buildings a portion of St. James's Park as a site for Public Offices.* (6th August, 1861.)

CAP. CXII.—*An Act for the appropriation of the Seats vacated by the Disfranchisement of the Boroughs of Sudbury and Saint Alban.* (6th August, 1861.)

The West Riding of the county of York to be divided into two divisions, to be called the northern and southern divisions, for each of which there shall be two members. An additional member granted for the southern division of Lancashire, which shall be entitled to return three knights of the shire instead of two. Birkenhead to form a borough to return one member.

CAP. CXXV.—*An Act to enable Overseers in populous parishes to provide Offices for the proper discharge of Parochial Business.* (6th August, 1861.)

CAP. CXXVIII.—*An Act to confirm certain provisional Orders under the Local Government Act, 1858, relating to the Districts of Plymouth, Weston-super-Mare, Llanelly, and Llandilo, and for other purposes in relation thereto.* (6th August, 1861.)

[466]

SCOTLAND.

CAP. XVII.—*An Act to amend an Act of the twentieth and twenty-first years of the reign of her Majesty, for the abatement of the Nuisance arising from the Smoke of Furnaces in Scotland.* (7th June, 1861.)

Complaints for recovery of penalties to be brought without the concurrence of the Lord Advocate. Burgh of barony and regality sending or contributing to send a member to Parliament to include the area within the parliamentary boundaries.

CAP. XVIII.—*An Act to make provision for the Dissolution of Combinations of Parishes in Scotland, as to the Management of the Poor.* (7th June, 1861.)

The parochial board of combination may appoint a special meeting for application for dissolution, and the special meeting may authorize the application to the board of supervision. The board of supervision may, thereupon, dissolve the combination. And after the dissolution, the management of the poor to proceed as if parishes never combined.

CAP. XXVII.—*An Act to declare the limits within which increased Assessments are authorized to be raised in the City of Edinburgh, under the provisions of the Act of the 23rd and 24th years of Victoria, c. 50.* (28th June, 1861.)

CAP. XXXVI.—*An Act to amend the Boundaries of Burghs Extension (Scotland) Act.* (22nd July, 1861.)

CAP. XXXVII.—*An Act to simplify the mode of raising the Assessment for the Poor in Scotland.* (22nd July, 1861.)

CAP. LXXXI.—*An Act to repeal the provisions in certain Statutes relative to the Salary of the Lord Clerk Register in Scotland.* (6th August, 1861.)

CAP. LXXXIII.—*An Act to amend the Law regarding the Registration of County Voters in Scotland.* (6th August, 1861.)

A new form to be used of county valuation rolls, setting forth, besides the usual particulars, the amount of feu duty, ground, annual, or other yearly consideration, payable as a condition of his right by every proprietor of any land or heritage entered on such roll as of the yearly rent or value of ten pounds or upwards, and the name of the person to whom the said consideration is payable; also the rent payable by every tenant. The sheriff clerk to deliver annually to the assessor a copy of the register of voters, and the assessor to make up annually a list of changes in the register. The assessor to make up and publish a list of claims and opportunities to be afforded for objections. The sheriff afterwards to hold courts for the revisal and correction of the register; and persons dissatisfied with the judgment of the sheriff may appeal, on points of law, to the Lords Ordinary.

CAP. LXXXVI.—*An Act to amend the Law regarding Conjugal Rights in Scotland.* (6th August, 1861.)

A wife deserted by her husband may apply for an order to protect property which she has or may acquire by her own industry, or which she may succeed to. The husband or his creditor may apply by petition for the seal

of the order. After interlocutor of protection is pronounced, the property of the wife to belong to her as if unmarried, and the order of protection to have the effect of a decree of separation. In case of separation, the property of the wife to belong to her exclusively of the *jus mariti* and right of administration, and also for purposes of contract and suing. In actions of divorce, the adulterer to be co-defender. When a married woman succeeds to property, or acquires right to it by donation, bequest, or any other means than by the exercise of her own industry, the husband or his creditors will not be entitled to claim the same.

IRELAND.

CAP. XXVI.—*An Act to amend the Dublin Improvement Act, 1849.* (28th June, 1861.)

CAP. XXXIV.—*An Act to extend the provisions of the Acts to facilitate the Improvement of Landed Property in Ireland, and to further provide for the erection of Dwellings for the Labouring Poor in Ireland.* (11th July, 1861.)

CAP. XLVIII.—*An Act to provide for the Cost of certain Proceedings to be taken under the Landlord and Tenant Law Amendment (Ireland) Act, 1860.* (1st August, 1861.)

CAP. XLIX.—*An Act to enable Justices in Ireland to commit to Local Bridewells Persons convicted of Drunkenness.* (1st August, 1861.)

In cases of committal for any offence relating to drunkenness for not exceeding forty-eight hours, committal may be to a local, although not a district or certified bridewell.

CAP. LVIII.—*An Act to continue an Act of the 11th and 12th years of her Majesty, relating to the collection of County Cess in Ireland.* (1st August, 1861.)

CAP. LX.—*An Act to amend the Act of the 13th and 14th years of her Majesty, c. 69, so far as relates to the time thereby limited for the Publication of the Lists of Voters objected to in Ireland.* (1st August, 1861.)

CAP. LXIII.—*An Act to enable Grand Juries in Ireland to increase the Remuneration of County Surveyors, and for other purposes.* (1st August, 1861.)

The grand jury at any summer assize may determine the annual salary payable to any county surveyor. If the same be increased to the amount authorized by the Act—viz., 600*l.* for 1st class, 500*l.* for 2nd class, and 400*l.* for 3rd class—the grand jury may order that such surveyor shall not engage in any private professional practice, so long as he shall continue to hold such office.

CAP. LXXI.—*An Act to provide for the performance of Duties heretofore performed by the Paymaster of Civil Services in Ireland, in relation to Advances and Repayments of Public Moneys for Public Works.* (1st August, 1861.)

CAP. LXXXV.—*An Act to authorize for a further period the application of Money for the purposes of Loans for carrying on Public Works.* (1st August, 1861.)

REFORMATORY SCHOOLS.

Fourth Report of the Inspector appointed to visit the certified Reformatory Schools of Great Britain.

THE number of young offenders under the age of 16 committed to prison in England and Wales for the year ending September 29, 1860, was 8,029, being nearly 900 less than for the year preceding, in which it was 8,913. The number of offenders also above 16 for the same period diminished from 98,159 to 92,611. A similar decrease appeared also in Scotland. The numbers then were, under 16 years of age, 1,230 in 1859, and 1,062 in 1860.

Allowing for the increase of population, which may be supposed to affect the criminal and dangerous classes equally with the rest, these figures show a decrease in the amount of juvenile delinquency in England and Wales in the five years ending September 29, 1860, of nearly 49 per cent.; and in that of adult crime of above 12 per cent.; and for Scotland, comparing the average for the last four years with that for the five years preceding, a diminution of juvenile offences to the amount of about 40 per cent., and of adult of nearly 15 per cent.

We shall hardly, however, give their full value to these results unless we take into account,—1st, that for the years 1857–1858 a marked increase of adult crime (as compared with the amount in 1856) was apparent, and that the decrease now experienced did not show itself till after the falling off in the amount of juvenile offences had had time to bear upon the supply of the older class of criminals; and, 2nd,—that the reduction of commitments has been effected in the face of three separate agencies, all operating to increase their numbers, viz., the establishment of a more effective police through the country, by which the chances of detecting and convicting criminals have been greatly increased;—the operation of the Criminal Justice Act, by which a considerable number of regular offenders have escaped a sentence of penal servitude or transportation, by pleading guilty, and submitting to a summary conviction followed by a short sentence of imprisonment, and have been thus left at liberty to appear again in the list of commitments for the same or the following year; and the steady increase in the number of liberated criminals resident in England in consequence of the cessation of transportation, and the discharge of the inmates of our government prisons at home.

On the important question, how far the agency of reformatories has been successful in reclaiming the individual offenders committed to them, the returns afford very satisfactory evidence. I have requested the managers of the different schools to accompany their abstract of the modes in which their inmates have left the school with a full return of the names of each individual on the list, and of the dates at which the boy or girl so named was discharged, and was last heard of. The returns so made have been carefully examined, and the errors arising from the less organized state of the schools, have as far as possible been eliminated. They show that of rather more than 1,000 boys discharged in England previously to December 31st, 1859, above 600 are known to be doing well; not quite 120 have been again convicted of crime; about 100 more have doubtful characters; and 180 have passed beyond the reach of inquiry. The results are about the same for the boys discharged in Scotland. When it is re-

membered that about 100 of the whole number absconded from the schools, principally in their earlier and less completely organized stages, and eluded apprehension, the proportion of those who have undergone the discipline of the schools, and have been restored by them to honest life, will appear very favourable, being about two thirds, or more than 70 per cent.

The results of the reformatories for girls have not been quite so encouraging, the proportion known to be doing well being, in England, about 40 per cent., and in Scotland about 20. The Scotch reformatories for girls have had great difficulties to contend with. With the exception of the Glasgow House of Refuge, they have only lately been made efficient for their purpose; and half the girls reported as discharged in fact absconded or were expelled from them; and a large proportion of those committed to them were of such an age, so hardened in vice, and so linked with depraved associates, as to make their admission to a reformatory at all almost a useless experiment. Better results may be looked for in answer to the efforts that have been made in Edinburgh, Stranraer, Glasgow, &c., to place the schools on a more effective footing, and to exclude the cases that are properly suited only to a Magdalen Asylum. It will be seen from the tables that the majority of the relapses into crime have taken place among those who on their discharge have been returned to their friends and relatives. This might have been expected, for such a mode of discharge practically means in most cases the placing the child under the same influences as had before led to its depraved condition. The most effectual method of avoiding this result is undoubtedly the free employment of the powers given to managers by the last Reformatory Act, 20 and 21 Vict. cap. 55., to place the boy or girl out on licence (under, that is, a ticket of leave) for a year or more before finally discharging them. This has been done very successfully in several reformatories, especially Castle Howard and Hardwicke. It enables the managers to maintain a control over those whom they place out for a considerable period after they have passed from the actual restraint of the school, and to accustom them to the habits, duties, and temptations of free life, before entirely launching them amidst its trials. It is undoubtedly far better for the boy or girl to be thus gradually restored to freedom and accustomed to self-government in partial liberty, than to be detained for the full term of their sentence under the exact and necessarily artificial discipline of the school. This is in fact the intention and purpose of such long sentences of detention as the Reformatory Acts allow of.

The amount of contributions obtained from parents during the year in England has increased considerably.

The receipts on this account in 1860 was 2,234*l.* 11*s.* 3*d.*

The amount for 1859 was 1,717*l.* 4*s.* The number of parents under payment at the end of the year 1860 was about 800, and the number of districts (exclusive of the metropolis) from which contributions were received about 200. The amount would have been greater but for the distress which prevailed in London, Coventry, and other places from the want or interruption of employment, the deficient harvest, and the high prices of food by which a large portion of the year was affected.

The payments by the Treasury in 1860 for the maintenance of young offenders under detention in reformatories, after deducting the amount of parents' contributions, were, for England, 46,735*l.* 12*s.* 4*d.*; for Scotland, 12,494*l.* 12*s.* 3*d.*: total, 59,230*l.* 4*s.* 7*d.*

[470]

PUBLIC GENERAL STATUTES.

24° VICTORIÆ.

SERIES E.—LAW, JUSTICE, AND CRIME.

UNITED KINGDOM.

CAP. XI.—*An Act to afford facilities for the better ascertainment of the Law of Foreign Countries when pleaded in Courts within Her Majesty's Dominions.* (17th May, 1861.)

The superior courts in her Majesty's dominions may remit a case with queries to a court of any foreign state with which her Majesty may have made a convention for that purpose, after ascertainment of the law of such state. The court in which the action depends may apply for such an opinion. The courts in her Majesty's dominions may pronounce an opinion in a case remitted by a foreign country.

CAP. CL.—*An Act for promoting the revision of the Statute Law by repealing certain Enactments which have ceased to be in force, or have become unnecessary.* (6th August, 1861.)

GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND.

CAP. XCV.—*An Act to repeal certain Enactments which have been consolidated in several Acts of the present Session relating to Indictable Offences and other matters.* (6th August, 1861.)

CAP. XCIX.—*An Act to consolidate and amend the Statute Law of the United Kingdom against offences relating to the Coins.*

ENGLAND AND IRELAND.

CAP. XCIV.—*An Act to consolidate and amend the Statute Law of England and Ireland relating to the accessories to and abettors of Indictable Offences.* (6th August, 1861.)

CAP. XCVI.—*An Act to consolidate and amend the Statute Law of England and Ireland relating to Larceny and other similar Offences.* (6th August, 1861.)

CAP. XCVII.—*An Act to consolidate and amend the Statute Law of England and Ireland relating to Malicious Injuries to Property.* (6th August, 1861.)

CAP. XCVIII.—*An Act to consolidate and amend the Statute Law of England and Ireland relating to Indictable Offences by Forgery.* (6th August, 1861.)

CAP. C.—*An Act to consolidate and amend the Statute Law of England and Ireland relating to Offences against the Person.* (6th August, 1861.)

[471]

ENGLAND.

CAP. XII.—*An Act for the Abolition of Contributions by Counties for the relief of Prisoners in the Queen's Prison, and for the benefit of Bethlehem Hospital.* (17th May, 1861.)

CAP. VI.—*An Act for granting pensions to some officers and men in the Metropolitan Police Force, and for other purposes.* (1st August, 1861.)

CAP. LXVIII.—*An Act to repeal certain Enactments relating to Nominating and appointing the Householders of Westminster to serve as Annoyance Jurors and to make other Provisions in lieu thereof.* (6th August, 1861.)

Quoting an act of Elizabeth by which jurors were appointed an annoyance jury to inspect annoyances, obstructions, and weights and measures of traders in the city and borough of Westminster, the Act repeals the same, and gives power to the dean of the Collegiate Church of St. Peter, Westminster, or the high steward and all burghesses, to appoint inspectors for the same, and to remunerate them. The inspectors to visit shops and warehouses, and to examine weights and measures used in the streets, and to have power to seize weights and to summon offenders. The said Court of Burghesses to have power to examine witnesses on oath and to inflict penalties.

CAP. CV.—*An Act to prevent the future Grant by copy of Court Roll and certain Leases of Lands and hereditaments in England belonging to Ecclesiastical benefices.* (6th August, 1861.)

No grant by any future prebendary, rector, &c., to be valid unless made in conformity with the provision of the Act referring to demise by incumbents of land belonging to benefices, and the Act enabling ecclesiastical corporations to grant leases, &c.

CAP. CXXIV.—*An Act for amending the Law relating to the Receiver for the Metropolitan Police District and for other purposes.* (6th August, 1861.)

The receiver of the Metropolitan Police was constituted a corporation sole with power to hold land, stock, and to sue and be sued on. The property held by former receivers to vest in his successors. The receiver not to be personally liable for any debt incurred by him in his official name; but all such debts to be satisfied out of the monies received by him in his official capacity. Power was also granted to the Secretary of State to grant pensions and compassionate allowances to widows and children of constables killed in the execution of their duty.

CAP. CXXXIV.—*An Act to amend the Law relating to Bankruptcy and Insolvency in England.* (6th August, 1861.)

The first part relates to the Court of Bankruptcy. The Court was declared to be a court of law and equity, and to have the jurisdiction of the Insolvent Debtors' Court. To the county court judges was granted a bankruptcy jurisdiction, and the jurisdiction of the district court of bankruptcy was transferred to the county courts. The Act appointed other officers of the court, such as registrars, accountants, taxing masters; but the messengers in the court for the relief of insolvent debtors in England to cease. The court fee heretofore payable in respect of public and private

sittings in bankruptcy was abolished, and also the percentage upon estates payable to the chief registrar's account.

The persons subject to the Bankruptcy Act were declared to be all debtors, whether traders or not; but no debtor who is not a trader to be adjudged bankrupt except in respect of some one of the acts of bankruptcy hereinafter described as applicable to a non-trader. Any person, non-trader, who goes or remains abroad, or makes fraudulent conveyance with intent to defeat or delay his creditors, is deemed to have made an act of bankruptcy. If any debtor, whether a trader or not, having been arrested, is lying in prison, or escapes out of prison; if a debtor trader or non-trader files a declaration that he is unable to meet his engagements; if a trader debtor suffers an execution to be levied, a judgment creditor may, at the end of one week from the signing of a judgment of a trader, and at the end of one month of a non-trader, summon the debtor to appear and be examined respecting his ability to satisfy his debt, and the same in cases of disobedience to a decree in equity, or order in bankruptcy, insolvency, or lunacy; and if after service the debtor does not pay the debt and costs, he may be adjudged bankrupt. Any debtor may petition for adjudication of bankruptcy against himself, and the filing of such petition is an act of bankruptcy. The proceedings to obtain adjudication of bankruptcy to be petition on the oath of the petitioner. The amount of the debt of any creditor petitioning for adjudication of bankruptcy against a debtor, whether trader or not, to be as follows:—The debt of a single creditor, or of two or more persons being partners, to amount to 50*l.* or upwards; the debt of two creditors to amount to 70*l.* or upwards; the debt of three or more creditors to amount to 100*l.* or upwards; every person who has given credit to any debtor upon valuable consideration for any sum payable at a certain time, which time shall not have arrived when such debtor has committed an act of bankruptcy, may so petition or join in petitioning, whether he shall have any security for such sum or not. The debt of the petitioning creditor of a non-trader must be contracted after the passing of the act. The debtor petitioning against himself must file a statement of debts. In the computation of debts reckoned for the purposes of the act are sums due to creditors holding mortgages or other available securities, liens, after deducting the value of the property in such mortgages and the interests and costs, but not debts in respect of which the debtor has already taken the benefit of insolvency protection or bankruptcy, and debts barren by any statute of limitation. Prisoners for debt may petition in *forma pauperis*. The gaolers are to make a monthly return of all prisoners for debt, and the registrar to attend at the gaol and examine every prisoner in such return, with power to make order of adjudication. Upon adjudication the official assignee will take possession of the estate until the appointment of creditors' assignees. A meeting of creditors is then to be held, when it may be at the option of the majority to resolve to accept any proposal which the creditor may make. The creditors' assignees are then to be chosen, to whom the official assignee will render an account of the estate, and it will be the duty of such creditors' assignees to collect and realize the estate, and to give an account of the same every three months to the official assignee. The court will then appoint a sitting for the last examination and application for discharge of the debtor, and a statement of accounts shall be laid before the creditors. The classification of certificates is abolished, and in every case when the discharge is suspended, such dis-

[478]

charge when allowed shall simply state the period for which it was suspended, and the reasons for such suspension. The following rules are then to be observed in granting orders of discharge:—

If on the hearing of any application for an order of discharge the assignees of any creditor shall allege, and if with or without such allegation the court shall be of opinion that there is ground for charging the bankrupt with acts or conduct amounting to a misdemeanor under this act, the court shall, if the bankrupt consent thereto, direct a clear statement in writing of the charge to be delivered to the bankrupt, and shall appoint a day for trying the bankrupt on such charge, and, if the bankrupt require it, shall summon a jury for such a purpose, and may direct the creditors' assignee, or the official assignee, or any of the creditors of the bankrupt, to act as prosecutor on such trial: provided always, that in every case of accusation against a bankrupt of acts amounting to a misdemeanour, it shall be competent to the commissioner to direct that the bankrupt be indicted and prosecuted in one of the ordinary courts of criminal justice; and in all other cases the order of discharge shall take effect immediately from its date, subject to the appeal herein provided.

If on such trial by a jury or by the commissioner alone the bankrupt shall be convicted of any offence by this act made a misdemeanour, the commissioner shall, in addition to the punishment awarded for the offence, have power to direct that the order of discharge be either wholly refused or suspended during such time and upon such conditions as he shall think fit:

If the bankrupt shall not be accused of acts amounting to misdemeanour, or if he shall have been accused and acquitted, but in either case there shall be made, or shall appear to the court to exist, objection to the granting of an immediate discharge, the court shall proceed to consider the conduct of the bankrupt before and after the adjudication, and the manner and circumstances in and under which his debts have been contracted; and if the court shall be of opinion that the bankrupt, being a trader, has carried on trade by means of fictitious capital, or has, with intent to conceal the true state of his affairs, wilfully omitted to keep proper books of account, or that his insolvency is attributable to rash and hazardous speculation, or unjustifiable extravagance in living, or, whether trader or not, that he had not at the time when any of his debts were contracted, any reasonable or probable ground or expectation of being able to pay the same, or that he has put any of his creditors to unnecessary expense by frivolous or vexatious defence to any action or suit to recover any debt or money due from him, the court may either refuse an order of discharge, or may suspend the same from taking effect for such time as the court may think fit, or may grant an order of discharge subject to any condition or conditions touching any salary, pay, emoluments, profits, wages, earnings, or income which may afterwards become due to the bankrupt, and touching after-acquired property of the bankrupt, or may sentence the bankrupt to be imprisoned for any period of time not exceeding one year from the date of such sentence:

A dividend is then made, and in due time the creditors' assignees are to be discharged. At the first meeting a majority of creditors, three-fourths in number and value of the creditors present or represented at such meeting, shall have the power to resolve that the estate shall be wound up under a deed of arrangement and composition, and that all proceedings shall be stayed; and these resolutions must be reported to the court for

confirmation. The conditions for the validity of trust deeds are as follows:— Every deed or instrument made or entered into between a debtor and his creditors, or any of them, or a trustee on their behalf, relating to the debts or liabilities of the debtor, and his release therefrom, or the distribution, inspection, management, and winding-up of his estate, or any of such matters, shall be as valid and effectual and binding on all the creditors of such debtor as if they were parties to and had duly executed the same, provided the following conditions be observed; that is to say,

1. A majority of three-fourths in number and value of the creditors of such debtor whose debts shall respectively amount to ten pounds and upwards shall, before or after the execution thereof by the debtor, in writing assent to or approve of such deed or instrument:

2. If a trustee or trustees be appointed by such deed or instrument, such trustee or trustees shall execute the same:

3. The execution of such a deed or instrument by the debtor shall be attested by an attorney or solicitor:

5. Within twenty-eight days from the day of the execution of such deed or instrument by the debtor the same shall be produced and left (having been first duly stamped) at the office of the chief registrar, for the purpose of being registered:

6. Together with such deed or instrument there shall be delivered to the chief registrar an affidavit by the debtor or some person able to depose thereto, or a certificate by the trustee or trustees, that a majority in number, including three-fourths in value, of the creditors of the debtor whose debts amount to ten pounds or upwards, have in writing assented to or approved of such deed or instrument, and also stating the amount in value of the property and credits of the debtor comprised in such deed:

7. Such deed or instrument shall, before registration, bear such ordinary and *ad valorem* stamp duties, as are hereinafter provided:

4. Immediately on the execution by the debtor of any deed or instrument by which any property is transferred, possession of all the property of which the debtor can give or order possession shall be given to the trustees:

The deed must be registered in the court of bankruptcy, and in default not be received as evidence.

After other clauses relating to fees, costs, &c., the act makes the following provisions as regards misdemeanors:—

From and after the commencement of this act, any bankrupt who shall do any of the acts or things following, with intent to defraud or defeat the rights of his creditors, shall be guilty of a misdemeanor, and shall be liable, at the discretion of the court before which he shall be convicted, to punishment by imprisonment for not more than three years, or to any greater punishment attached to the offence by any existing statute:—

1. If he shall not upon the day limited for his surrender, and before three of the clock of such day, or at the hour and upon the day allowed him for finishing his examination, after notice thereof in writing, to be served upon him personally or left at his usual or last known place of abode or business, and after the notice herein directed in the *London Gazette*, surrender himself to the court (having no lawful impediment allowed by the court), and sign or subscribe such surrender, and submit to be examined before such court from time to time:

2. If he shall not upon his examination fully and truly discover, to the best of his knowledge and belief, all his property, real and personal, inclusive of his rights and credits, and how and to whom, and for what consideration, and when he disposed of, assigned, or transferred any part thereof, except such part as has been really and *bonâ fide* before sold or disposed of in the way of his trade or business, if any, or laid out in the ordinary expense of his family, or shall not deliver up to the court, or dispose as the court directs of all such part thereof as is in his possession, custody, or power, except the necessary wearing apparel of himself, his wife, and children; and deliver up to the court all books, papers, and writings in his possession, custody, or power relating to his property or affairs:

3. If he shall, after adjudication, or within sixty days prior to adjudication, with intent to defraud his creditors, remove, conceal, or embezzle, any part of his property to the value of ten pounds or upwards:

4. If, in case of any person having to his knowledge or belief proved a false debt under his bankruptcy, he shall fail to disclose the same to his assignees within one month after coming to the knowledge or belief thereof:

5. If he shall, with intent to defraud, wilfully and fraudulently omit from his schedule any effects or property whatsoever:

6. If he shall, after the filing of the petition for adjudication, with intent to conceal the state of his affairs, or to defeat the object of the law of bankruptcy, conceal, prevent or withhold the production of any book, deed, paper, or writing relating to his property, dealings, or affairs:

7. If he shall, after the filing of the petition for adjudication, or within three months next before adjudication, with intent to conceal the state of his affairs, or to defeat the objects of the law of bankruptcy, part with, conceal, destroy, alter, mutilate, or falsify, or cause to be concealed, destroyed, altered, mutilated, or falsified, any book, paper, writing, or security, or document relating to his property, trade, dealings, or affairs, or make or be privy to the making of any false or fraudulent entry or statement in or omission from any book, paper, document, or writing relating thereto:

8. If, within the like time, he shall, knowing that he is at the time unable to meet his engagements, fraudulently and with intent to diminish the sum to be divided amongst the general body of his creditors, have made away with, mortgaged, encumbered, or charged any part of his property, of what kind soever, or if after adjudication he shall conceal from the court or his assignee any debt due to or from him:

9. If, being a trader, he shall, under his bankruptcy, or at any meeting of his creditors within three months next preceding the filing of the petition for adjudication, have attempted to account for any of his property by fictitious losses or expenses:

10. If, being a trader, he shall, within three months next before the filing of the petition for adjudication, under the false colour and pretence of carrying on business and dealing in the ordinary course of trade, have obtained on credit from any person any goods or chattels with intent to defraud:

11. If, being a trader, he shall, with intent to defraud his creditors, within three months next before the filing of the petition for adjudication, pawn, pledge, or dispose of, otherwise than by *bonâ fide* transactions in the ordinary way of his trade, any of his goods or chattels which have been obtained on credit and remain unpaid for.

FACTORIES.

Reports of the Inspectors of Factories for the half-year ending 30th April, 1861.

THE accidents arising from machinery in the six months affected 2,076 persons, 1,129 males and 944 females, of whom 26 died; and the accidents not arising from machinery affected 129 persons, of whom 3 died. M. Redgrave reported on the schools that the total number was 337, but that 40 of them were so bad as not to be entitled to a certificate, and 107 were very insufficient. Mr. Baker gave the following information on the state of trade in Coventry:—

At Coventry the trade is better, and I trust there is a probability of a future prosperity for them greater than they have ever before enjoyed. Its true position at the present moment, and for the most part the effect of the ordeal to which it has been lately subjected, is this, that there has arisen among the manufacturers a genuine spirit of improvement, and a strenuous desire to effect it so far as lies in their power. If in fact they were possessed of capital at all equal to that of the cotton manufacturers, my impression is that henceforward they would exhibit as much energy and enterprise. That they have it not, and that the ribbon trade is but a limited one, as well as greatly dependant upon the caprice of fashion, are reasons why it is scarcely fair to insist upon a comparison between them. So much, however, as this may be said, that there are looms in Coventry now, on which can be woven almost anything that can be woven on any loom in any country. They are not many, it is true; but the movement is begun, and we may be sure it will go on.

Moreover, other branches of trade are springing up within the city. During the last six months coach lace, elastic web, and muslin frilling have taken root amongst ribbon weaving. The latter is a new invention, and has been patented in England, France, and America. It is an ingenious mode of making frilling for dresses, with a hem on one side and a drawing cord on the other; so that, instead of ladies having to cut muslin into the required lengths, and whip and hem them, it is all done to their hands in any widths they please, and in lengths of a dozen yards, at a comparatively trifling cost. Already many looms are employed upon this manufacture, with a probability of a vast trade to arise from it in future. Cotton spinning and weaving will probably also soon be in progress, not only in Coventry but in the neighbourhood; so that with all these varieties of trade, at work or in preparation, we may fairly hope that the city has gone through its worst commercial phase. There are two other very gratifying circumstances to be added to this catalogue of hopes; one is, that a school of art, which has existed for some time in a semi-lifeless state, lingering between doubt and fear, has now had the courage to rear its head, and ask for a local habitation worthy of the labours of its scholars, from whence designs may originate and flourish in the very ground which is cultivated to receive them. Another is that Lord Leigh, the benevolent and kind-hearted Lord Lieutenant of Warwickshire, and Lady Leigh, with other ladies of the county, who have, through all the sad period of distress to which Coventry has been subjected, been ever foremost and most energetic in assisting to relieve it, have established, first, a gold medal for the best ribbon, woven in Coventry, combining the best design with harmony of colour; secondly, a silver medal for a series of designs in ribbons, the

product of local talent; and, thirdly, a prize of 5*l*. for the best weavers' ribbon, combining chastity of design with cheapness and good workmanship. If Coventry does not therefore henceforth flourish, it will not be for want of encouragement and support. It strikes me, however, very forcibly, that there is yet an element wanting to complete its success, and it is this: As I have before reported, there are in Coventry a large number of cottage factories, *i. e.*, looms in cottage houses, the property of the weavers, (each house being a factory upon a small scale,) some turned by steam and some by hand, in which ribbons are woven from silk, and in patterns delivered to the weavers, either by manufacturers who have more orders than they can execute on their own looms, or by merchants who are not manufacturers. Some of these weavers have six, some four, but mostly two looms. Now I have found in several of these houses instances where the workman has been desirous of improving his machinery, so as to render it adequate to the production of new designs, but has not been able to do so without pecuniary assistance from his employer; and it seems to me desirable that a fund should be established by the weavers themselves, by a contribution of a penny a loom a week, from all looms in work, out of which they might not only make these alterations, but go further and carry out their own designs, and preserve them to themselves, the amount to be repaid by instalments, just the same as if it had been borrowed from their employers. There is also one other question more immediately deserving of consideration, because it is vastly important to the welfare of the weavers as a body. There are in Coventry above 400 of these cottage factories, and the experiment of isolated labour may therefore be said to have been fairly tried; but the tendency of experience is to a return to aggregate rather than to isolated factory work; *i. e.*, to large factories rather than to cottage factories, not only on account of the greater cheapness, but of the readier power of production which combination gives, and the convenience which it affords. This is certainly the conclusion to which the masters are arriving; and if so, and if the cottage factory system which has been so largely developed is to be abandoned, what is to become of all the little properties which have been invested in looms, and power, and buildings, by these industrious workmen, and how is their ruin to be averted? They must begin, I think, in time, to look to the alternative success which we hear so much of in Lancashire and other places; an alternative which has built up a vast number of the manufacturers, whose works and wealth have given them a status which has no comparative place in the world, and which had none in our own history till within the last half century. They must prepare now for this change as a contingency which may arrive, and of which they will then be able to take advantage; for if it never arrives they will be none the worse, but all the better for the provision which they have thus made. But if co-operative skill and capital has anywhere succeeded in the cotton districts, and if working men have been enabled upon the joint stock principle, and with limited liability, to erect or rent factories, to fill them with machinery, and to compete with those who were once their masters in the fair field of commercial enterprise, there need be no despondency among the ribbon weavers of Coventry, who already inhabit blocks of forty or fifty houses in length, with their looms and all their appliances in the top stories, steam shafting running through the whole length of the buildings, with only thin partitions between house and house, and which are thus prepared, as it were, at the smallest possible cost,

to take the shape of aggregated labour at any moment; to become factories, in fact, in which the masters would be their own workmen, dependant upon their own exertions, supported by their own capital, conservators of their own inventions, ever ready to stimulate each other to greater excellence, living at the smallest expenses, and therefore producing more cheaply and yet as effectively as the factory system so called. I mention this merely, because, if it be true that the late disorganization of interests between the masters and workpeople in Coventry, no matter from whatever cause derived, has led to the idea of this contingency, as no doubt it has, the sooner the cottage factory owners know their position the better, that they may make provision for it by the time it does arise; because to do so again they will have to recover by industry and strict economy the savings which have lately been so sadly lost and thrown away. And, above all, they have to remember what an alteration the same ordeal, which has had such an effect upon the trade, has had upon themselves; for it has divided them from one into three classes; a lower, with only the commonest ability, and altogether unfit for so artistic a trade as ribbon manufacture, a class which came in upon demand and not upon merit; which it could very well spare, and which the cotton trade will probably absorb; a middle, which is in very fair work, though at reduced wages; and an upper class, which can command wages equal to those of any former period; and by so dividing them, as it appears to me, it has put an end for ever to a consolidation of these classes at an average rate of wages, as has been the case under the restrictions of a price-list system. Wages in future will only be paid in proportion to skill and industry; and with the growth of intelligence among the labourers it can hardly be expected that even among them skill will long stoop to an equal partnership with ignorance or inability, since it is only skill in combination with capital which ever succeeds in permanently establishing profits. Unskilled labour only lives upon capital without strengthening it. To those who have seen the depression and the want of spirit under which Coventry has lately laboured, it may be doubtful whether it ever can recover itself, or if it does, whether an opportunity will be ever again afforded to the weavers to save enough for what is called the co-operative system, if needs be. But I rejoice to be able to say that during the week ending with 9th May, 1861, not less than from 10,000*l* to 11,000*l* was paid in wages on account of the ribbon trade, which was as much as is usually paid even in good times; and that the recent deposits and withdrawals in and from the savings bank not only confirm this return of prosperity, but show a heretofore economy and providence amongst the weavers, by which others have succeeded those who have been compelled to become servants again by the operation of the late strike, and that therefore a continuance of the same habits for a while longer will refurnish them with the means of aggregating their labour, should the contingency which I have referred to, ever arise.

It thus appears that, though in 1859 when trade was good the depositors were nearly twice as many as now when it is only returning, and the withdrawals two thirds less, yet that, comparing the spring of 1861 with the summer of 1860, the depositors have increased upwards of 26 per cent., and are steadily increasing; whilst the withdrawals, though yet 16 per cent. in excess of those of 1860, are steadily decreasing. These withdrawals are, however, easily accounted for; for since the 1st of January, 1860, many changes have taken place in the occupation of these cottage factories—changes which

only still further confirm my opinion of the elasticity of the workmen's economic powers, if they would only use them wisely.

Out of 383 of the cottage factories lately visited officially, only 198 occupations remain as they were tenanted in March, 1860. 83 are occupied by new tenants, 25 are entirely vacant, 68 have reverted to hand power, and 9 are altogether idle. But if we thus reckon the entirely idle and the vacant together, we see that of the whole number only 34 are inoperative, which is very satisfactory.

I have heard it remarked over and over again, that lately a vast amount of Coventry ribbons have been sold for French, and that a large amount also of French ribbons have been sold for those made at Coventry; and I cannot help saying that I think it a happy and a proud day for Coventry that it is so, for it testifies more than any assertion can do to the very high character of our home manufacture. During the period of the recent distress which has prevailed in this ancient city, the charitable contributions of the public for its relief have amounted to 41,665*l.* 14*s.* 6*d.*, but for which it would seem that Coventry must have sunk as a manufacturing place, or have been for a long while in a state of the deepest depression; and it will be satisfactory to the donors to know that their contributions were most timely, and have been wisely expended.

FOREIGN SUGAR.

An account of the quantity of Foreign Sugar entered for home consumption during each year from 1844 to 1860 inclusive; distinguishing refined from unrefined, and also the several places from whence such Sugar was imported. (Mr. Moffatt.) 27th May, 1861. (282.)

THE quantity of foreign sugar of all sorts collectively imported were 104 cwts. in 1844; 77,334 cwts. in 1845; 616,349 cwts. in 1846; 990,814 cwts. in 1847; 1,246,230 cwts. in 1848; 511,755 cwts. in 1849; 1,009,684 cwts. in 1850; 1,681,195 cwts. in 1851; 951,466 cwts. in 1852; 1,735,792 cwts. in 1853; 2,732,965 cwts. in 1854; 2,599,331 cwts. in 1855; 1,875,351 cwts. in 1856; 2,913,723 cwts. in 1857; 3,373,041 cwts. in 1858; 3,754,460 in 1859; and 3,760,457 cwts. in 1860. In 1860 the sugar was imported from the following countries:—From Cuba, 1,259,593 cwts.; Porto Rico, 359,296 cwts.; Dutch Guiana 52,057 cwts.; United States of America, 15,889 cwts.; Central America, 15,953 cwts.; New Grenada, 4 cwts.; Venezuela, 2 cwts.; Brazil, 608,045 cwts.; Bourbon, 3,009 cwts.; Siam, 46,427 cwts.; Java, 128,212 cwts.; Philippine Islands, 426,876 cwts.; China, 15,300 cwts.; Hanseatic Towns, 1,422 cwts.; Holland, 215,245 cwts.; Belgium, 106,850 cwts.; Channel Islands, 71 cwts.; France, 580,217 cwts.; Italy, 1,172 cwts.; other parts, 3,760,457 cwts.

PUBLIC GENERAL STATUTES.

24° VICTORIA.

SERIES A.—FINANCE, COMMERCE, AND AGRICULTURE.

UNITED KINGDOM.

CAP. II.—*An Act to apply the Sum of 4,000,000*l.* out of the Consolidated Fund to the Service of the year 1861.* (22nd May, 1861.)

CAP. III.—*An Act to make further Provision respecting certain Payments to and from the Bank of England, and to increase the facilities for the Transfer of Stocks and Annuities, and for other purposes.* (22nd March, 1861.)

The future payment to the Bank for the management of the public debt to be as follows:—While the whole unredeemed debt exceeds 300,000,000*l.*, and does not amount to 400,000,000*l.*, a sum at the rate of 450*l.* per annum for each million of the capital; while the whole of such unredeemed debt amounts to 400,000,000*l.*, and does not exceed 600,000,000*l.*, a sum at the rate of 300*l.* per annum for each million of the capital; while the whole of such unredeemed debt exceeds 600,000,000*l.*, a sum at the rate of 300*l.* per annum for each million of the capital up to 600,000,000*l.*; and a sum at the rate of 150*l.* per annum for each million of the capital in excess thereof. In estimating the amount of unredeemed debt for the purposes of the Act annuities for terms of years shall be taken into account, and shall, for the purpose of making a nominal capital, be valued at 15 years' purchase if originally granted for a term exceeding 50 years, and at 10 years' purchase if granted for a term of 50 years or under. After the 5th April, 1860, the old charges for the management of the debt to lease, and the Bank of England to pay 60,000*l.* in consideration of the exemption from stamp duties, and the whole allowance out of profits of issue being 128,078*l.*, the Act provided also increased facilities for transfer.

CAP. V.—*An Act to amend the Law relating to supply Exchequer Bills, and to charge the same on the Consolidated Fund.* (18th April, 1861.)

CAP. VI.—*An Act to apply the Sum of 3,000,000*l.* out of the Consolidated Fund to the Service of the year 1861.* (18th April, 1861.)

[481]

CAP. XV.—*An Act to enable Her Majesty to settle an Annuity on Her Royal Highness the Princess Alice Maude Mary.* (17th May, 1861.)

Power to her Majesty to grant an annuity of 6,000*l.* to her Royal Highness the Princess Alice Maude Mary, to commence from the date of her marriage with his Grand Ducal Highness Prince Frederick William Louis of Hesse.

CAP. XIX.—*An Act to apply the Sum of 10,000,000*l.* out of the Consolidated Fund to the Service of the year 1861.* (7th June, 1861.)

24° & 25° VICTORIÆ.

CAP. LXXIII.—*An Act to amend the Law relating to the Copyright of Designs.* (6th August, 1861.)

The Copyright of Designs Act to apply to every design, whether the application be done within the United Kingdom or elsewhere, and whether the inventor or proprietor of such design be or be not a subject of her Majesty.

CAP. CIII.—*An Act to apply a Sum out of the Consolidated Fund and the Surplus of Ways and Means to the Service of the year 1861, and to appropriate the Supplies granted in this Session of Parliament.* (6th August, 1861.)

CAP. CXVII.—*An Act to place the employment of Women, Young Persons, Youths and Children in Lace Factories under the regulation of the Factories Act.* (6th August, 1861.)

The Factory Acts to apply to lace factories and to the employment of females and young persons, youths, and children therein. Youths between the age of 16 and 18 may be employed between four A.M. and 10 P.M., but not more than nine hours between those times.

CAP. CXXVII.—*An Act for limiting and regulating the Treasury Chest Fund.* (6th August, 1861.)

The available balance of Treasury Chest Fund to be limited to 1,300,000*l.*, and the surplus to form part of the Consolidated Fund.

GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND.

CAP. XIV.—*An Act to grant Additional Facilities for depositing Small Savings at Interest with the Security of the Government for due Repayment thereof.* (17th May, 1861.)

The Postmaster-General may direct officers in post offices to receive deposits. Every deposit to be entered in a depositor's book, and acknowledgment of the same by the Postmaster-General to be transmitted to the depositors. The name of the depositors not to be disclosed. The money to be paid to the Commissioners for the Reduction of the National Debt, and to be repaid to the depositors through the Post Office. The interest to be at the rate of two pounds ten shillings per cent. per annum.

CAP. XX.—*An Act to Continue certain Duties of Customs and Inland Revenue for the Service of Her Majesty, and to alter and repeal certain other Duties.* (12th June, 1861.)

The following duties to continue till the 1st July, 1862: tea, 1*s.* 5*d.* the lb.; paste of almond, cherries, comfits, ginger marmalade, plums, succade, &c.,

2*d.* the lb.; sugar, yellow muscovado, 13*s.* 10*d.* the cwt.; brown muscovado, 12*s.* 8*d.*; chicory, custom duties 12*s.* the cwt., with an excise duty of 8*s.* 6*d.* the cwt. The income-tax to be 9*d.* in the pound, except for class B.; and 4½*d.* in the pound in England and 3*d.* in Scotland and Ireland in respect of occupation of land, &c., charged under class B. The custom duties to cease on paper, brown paper, printed, painted or stained paper-hangings or flock paper, paper for printing or writing, gilt paper, waste paper, mill-boards and pasteboards, and books being of editions printed in or since the year 1801, and books admitted under treaties of international copyright, or of and from any British possession, rents, and drawings.

CAP. LXXX.—*An Act to authorize advances of Money out of the Consolidated Fund for carrying on Public Works and Fisheries for Employment of the Poor and for facilitating the Construction and Improvement of Harbours, and for other purposes.* (6th August, 1861.)

Power to charge 360,000*l.* per annum upon the Consolidated Fund by issues not exceeding 90,000*l.* per quarter for advances or loans, and 350,000*l.* or 87,500*l.* per quarter per annum for harbours.

CAP. XCI.—*An Act to amend the Laws relating to the Inland Revenue.* (6th August, 1861.)

Methylated spirit may be retailed under licence for that purpose, but not to be prepared or sold as a beverage. The drawback on beer exported to be 4*s.* per barrel up to the gravity of 1,125 degrees, and 6*d.* per barrel for every additional 5 degrees. Lower rate of duty on refreshment houses. Licences 10*s.* 6*d.* if under 30*l.* rent, and 1*l.* 1*s.* if more. Persons licenced to retail beer not precluded from taking out wine licences. As to stamps. Protest of any bill or note when the stamp duty on the bill or note does not exceed 1*s.*, the same duty as on the bill or note; protest of any other bill or note, and protest of any other kind and other notorial act whatsoever, 1*s.* And for every sheet or piece of paper, parchment, or vellum upon which the same shall be written, after the first a progressive duty of 1*s.* Stamp duties on proxies in respect of letters of attorney, commission, mandate, &c., 6*d.* Adhesive stamps may be used. The duty upon renewals of certain insurances upon death or personal injury to be repealed. On appointment of new trustees where several deeds are required, one only shall be charged with the full stamp duty, and the others as duplicate. Bills of sale to be produced in any court stamped, and all deeds must be stamped before registration. The licences to joint stock banks are not required to specify the names of more than six persons. The provisions made for assessing the income-tax on the interest and dividends payable in the United Kingdom arising out of foreign companies extended to colonial companies.

CAP. XCII.—*An Act to amend the Laws for the Collection of the Stamp Duties on Probates, Administrations, Inventories, Legacies, and Successions.* (6th August, 1861.)

Proceeding for enforcing payment of succession and legacy duty. The provisions relating to summary proceedings in England extended to Ireland.

CAP. XCIII.—*An Act to provide for the Preparation, Audit, and Presentation to Parliament of annual accounts of the Appropriation of the Monies voted for the Revenue Department.* (6th August, 1861.)

CAP. CIX.—*An Act to amend the Laws relating to Fisheries of Salmon in England.* (6th August, 1861.)

The Act prescribes the mode of fishing by inflicting penalties on mixing poisonous substances in rivers, on fishing with lights, spears, on using roe as a bait, on using fixed engines, on using certain nets, on using certain dams for catching salmon, and for not erecting gratings to prevent the descent of salmon into artificial streams, on taking unclean fish, on taking the young of salmon, on disturbing the fish when spawning. Restrictions as to times of fishing between the 1st of September and 1st of February. General superintendence of fisheries by the Home Office; appointment of inspectors and of conservators of rivers.

GREAT BRITAIN.

CAP. XX.—*An Act for granting to Her Majesty certain Duties of Excise and Stamps.* (28th June, 1861.)

Licensed dealers in spirits taking out an additional licence may retail and send out foreign or British spirits in less quantities than two gallons. Any person may take out a licence for the sale of table beer by retail not to be consumed on the premises. Persons seeking orders for goods at other men's houses to be deemed hawkers, and to require a licence. House agents to require a licence. The stamp duty on a lease of a furnished house for less than one year may be adhesive, and must be cancelled. New duties were imposed on foreign bills of exchange on bills exceeding 500*l.*; for every 100*l.* and part of 100*l.*, 1*s.*

ENGLAND AND IRELAND.

CAP. XXXV.—*An Act to increase the facilities for the Transfer of Stock and Annuities transferable at the Bank of Ireland, and to make further provision respecting the mutual transfer of Capital in certain public stock or funds transferable at the Bank of England and Ireland respectively.* (22nd July, 1861.)

IRELAND.

CAP. LXXXV.—*An Act to authorize for a further period the application of Money for the purposes of loans for carrying on Public Works in Ireland.* (6th August, 1861.)

ENGLAND.

CAP. CX.—*An Act for regulating the business of Dealers in old Metals.* (6th August, 1861.)

A penalty is imposed where dealers in old metal are found to be in possession of stolen property, and justices of the peace may order any dealer so convicted to be registered.

SCOTLAND.

CAP. LXXII.—*An Act to make further Provision for the regulation of the British White Herring Fishery in Scotland.* (1st August, 1861.)

A penalty is inflicted for every person selling herring during close time.

BRITISH MUSEUM.

Return for Copy of any Reports or Evidence taken before the Trustees of the British Museum respecting the Illumination of Public Buildings and Galleries with Gas, and any Resolutions of the Trustees entered into in relation thereto. (Lord Monteagle of Brandon.) 31st May, 1861. (119 L.)

SEVERAL questions were put by the Trustees of the British Museum to Mr. Braidwood, the superintendent of the London fire-engine department, respecting the illumination of that building. To the question whether the British Museum could be safely lighted up in the evenings, he said—You do not state whether the proposed lighting is to be effected by candles, oil, or gas. Lighting might be effected with candles or oil with comparative safety (under good management), but if the building is to be lighted by gas the question assumes a very different aspect. In the first place the use of gas desiccates everything within its reach, especially all ceilings, roofs, &c. which are placed above the lights, thus rendering them much more inflammable than they otherwise would be, causing what would otherwise be a trifling fire a serious conflagration. In the second place, the heat and fumes evolved by the combustion of gas are most decidedly against the preservation of any vegetable or animal substances, and tend to discolour stone, marble, &c., in such a manner that it is very difficult to restore the original colour. This is stated on the supposition that the Museum is to be lighted by single Argand lights, but if what are called “sun” burners are used the risk will be immensely increased. The sun burner consumes a very large quantity of gas at one point, causing an intense degree of heat, which has to be carried off by pipes, a process difficult of performance with perfect safety in a building constructed with so much inflammable material as the Museum. Several fires have been occasioned by their use. I would therefore consider these lights as totally inadmissible in the British Museum. Independent of these risks is the danger of explosion to which every place where gas is used is liable, notwithstanding the accuracy with which the fittings may be executed, and it must not be forgotten that the more substantial the building is, so much more destructive is the explosion. To the second question, Do you consider that it would render extensive alterations in the building necessary? Mr. Braidwood answered, it does not appear to me that extensive alterations would be necessary for the introduction of gas, but the floors, ceilings, and walls would be very much cut about, and a very heavy expense incurred. And to the third, Do you consider the risk, supposing there is any, equal in all departments? he answered, I believe the risk to be such that on no consideration should a building intended to last for ages, and containing such invaluable property as the British Museum, be subjected to it. The relative risk of the different departments will vary according to the structure and contents of each. Thus those parts which are most solidly constructed and of the heaviest materials will suffer most in case of an explosion, and those departments where there is a greater quantity of combustible materials in the structure and contents will, when such materials are sufficiently dried and prepared for burning, suffer more severely from

any trifling accident which may take place, and which but for such desiccation of the materials around would have passed off without much damage or observation. I have always disliked the small hot-water pipes used to heat the British Museum; although they are very carefully placed in slate troughs, &c., several trifling accidents have occurred from them. If such accidents were to occur after the surrounding timber had been dried up by gas for some years the result might be much more serious. I would also beg to add, that two firemen would be incapable of giving the necessary attention if the Museum were lighted by gas, and a considerable number of additional firemen must be employed.

In support of this opinion Mr. Braidwood stated that Mr. Warrington, the chief chemical officer at the Apothecaries' Hall, agreed with him as to the destructive tendencies of the vapour evolved in the burning of gas, and was ready to give the chemical reasons if called upon. A similar opinion was elicited from Mr. Sydney Smirke, R.A., architect to the British Museum, in consequence of which, the trustees on the 13th April, 1861, came to a unanimous opinion that they would not be justified in allowing the collections of the British Museum to be open at any hour which would require gas light.

CHURCH ESTATES.

Tenth General Report of the Church Estates Commissioners.

THE Commissioners on the previous year reported that the transactions approved by them, between August, 1851 and March, 1860, were 1,951 in number, and that the value in fee of the estates so agreed to be dealt with was more than 7,000,000*l*.

During this year the Commissioners approved the terms agreed upon in 176 cases; 511 being cases of sales of reversions, and 25 cases of purchases of leasehold interests, and the value in fee of the estates so agreed to be dealt with exceeds 750,000*l*. The aggregate number of cases enumerated in our yearly reports as approved is therefore 2,127, and the value of the property dealt with exceeds 7,750,000*l*. In two cases we declined to approve the terms proposed; but in one of these the terms have been modified so as to meet with our sanction, and it has been included in the number above stated to have been approved.

The purchases and sales continue to be effected to the apparent satisfaction of the lessees, and on terms affording a considerable improvement on the past revenues of the episcopal and capitular corporations, under the system of renewing leases in consideration of the payment of fines. But there was a sensible diminution in the number of transactions reported for the last year as compared with those in previous years; and, although this is to a certain extent met by the comparatively increased value of the property dealt with, the decrease may point to the conclusion that the system of voluntary enfranchisement by the Episcopal and Capitular Corporations will only require to be maintained for a limited period.

PUBLIC GENERAL STATUTES.

24° & 25° VICTORIÆ.

SERIES C.—ECCLESIASTICAL AFFAIRS AND EDUCATION.

ENGLAND AND IRELAND.

CAP. LII.—*An Act to provide that Votes at Election for the Universities may be recorded by means of Voting Papers.* (1st August, 1861.)

In lieu of attending to vote in person, electors may nominate any other elector to deliver for them at the poll voting papers containing their votes. The voting papers may be inspected by any person entitled to object to votes.

ENGLAND.

CAP. LXXXII.—*An Act for making provision for the good government and extension of the University of Durham.* (6th August, 1861.)

A commission was appointed with power to repeal or alter any order in Council, statute, or regulations relating to the University; to alter the subscription required to be made on proceeding to any degree in the University; to alter or modify the trust's statutes, as affecting any gift or endowment; to repeal or alter the college statute respecting the eligibility of persons to fellowships; to create scholarships, &c.

CAP. CXIII.—*An Act for amending and consolidating the Law relating to Industrial Schools.* (6th August, 1861.)

Her Majesty's Secretary of State for the Home Department may certify that any school in which children are clothed, lodged, and fed, as well as taught, is fitted for the reception of such children as may be sent there under this Act. Any child apparently under the age of fourteen years found begging or receiving alms, or being in any street or public place for the purpose of begging or receiving alms. Any child apparently under the age of fourteen years that is found wandering and not having any home or settled place of abode, or any visible means of subsistence, or who frequents the company of reputed thieves. Any child apparently under the age of twelve years, who, having committed an offence punishable by imprisonment, or some less punishment, ought, nevertheless, in the opinion of the justices, regard being had to his age and to the circumstances of the case, to be sent to an industrial school. Any child under the age of fourteen years whose parent represents that he is unable to control him, and that he desires such child to be sent to an industrial school, in pursuance of this Act, and who

[487]

424 C.—ECCLESIASTICAL AFFAIRS AND EDUCATION.

at the same time gives such undertaking or other security as may be approved by the justices before whom he is brought, in pursuance of this Act, to pay all expenses incurred for the maintenance of such child at school. Provided that no child who, on being brought before the justices, is proved to have been previously convicted of felony, shall be deemed to be within the provisions of this Act.

The justices may order such child to be sent to an industrial school for such period as they may think necessary, taking care to select if possible a school conducted in accordance with the religious persuasion to which the parent of the child appears to them to belong. The Treasury to pay for the maintenance of such children; and the justices may make an order on the parent of such child for the payment of the expenses of his maintenance at school to an amount not exceeding five shillings for every week during which the child remains at such school.

CAP. XVI.—*An Act for the Appropriation in favour of the Military Knights and the Churches of Windsor of two of the Canonries suspended in the Chapel of Windsor, and for making certain Provisions respecting the Naval Knights of Windsor.* (6th August, 1861.)

CAP. CXXXI.—*An Act to continue the Act concerning the Management of Episcopal and Capitular Estates in England, and further to amend certain Acts relating to the Ecclesiastical Commissioners for England.* (6th August, 1861.)

SCOTLAND.

CAP. XC.—*An Act to make Arrangements as to the Disposal and Management of Property belonging to the University of Edinburgh, and to regulate the Appropriation and Application of the Annuity of 2,500*l.* payable from the Revenues of the Harbour and Dock of Leith, under the Authority of an Act passed in the first and second year of Victoria, chap. 55.* (6th August, 1861.)

CAP. CVII.—*An Act to alter and amend the Law relating to Parochial and Burgh Schools and to the Test required to be taken by Schoolmasters in Scotland.* (6th August, 1861.)

The salaries of schoolmasters to be not less than 35*l.* nor more than 70*l.* per annum; the salary to be fixed by the heritors, together with the minister. The heritors may discontinue any existing side schools. In place of the examination by the Presbytery, the examination to be by examiners appointed by the university. Parochial schoolmasters not to be required to sign the confession of faith, or any formula, but to make a declaration and to undertake to conform to the shorter catechism. The jurisdiction of the Presbytery in cases of immoral conduct or cruelty transferred to the sheriff.

CAP. CXXXII.—*An Act for consolidating and amending the Law relating to Industrial Schools in Scotland.* (6th August, 1861.)

The clauses of this Act are, with some modifications, similar to those for the corresponding Act for England. A child chargeable to the parish, to be sent to a parochial industrial school, if any.

RAILWAY AND CANAL BILLS.

Report of the Board of Trade on the Railway and Canal Bills of 1861.

The number of bills relating to railways in Great Britain and Ireland deposited this sessions amounts to 283. Of this number, 240 authorize new works. The proposed new works to be authorized by the 240 before-mentioned bills, may be classed as follows:—By new companies, in England, 93 bills for 1,446 miles; in Scotland, 10 bills for 220 miles; and in Ireland, 14 bills for 349 miles: total, 117 bills for 2,015 miles. By existing companies, in England, 94 bills for 814 miles; in Scotland, 17 bills for 67 miles; and in Ireland, 12 bills for 121 miles: total, 123 bills for 1,002 miles. The total length of new lines is, therefore, 3,017 miles, and there are in addition 52 miles of deviation lines.

The following is an outline of the object of the several Metropolitan Bills:

The Bills marked with an asterisk (*) have been withdrawn.

The Thames Embankment and Railway Bill provides railway communication between the Victoria Station, in Pimlico, and a point near Southwark Bridge, by means of an underground railway along the centre of Victoria Street, and by an embankment along the north side of the river from Westminster Bridge.

The Thames Embankment Bill provides railway communication also on the north side of the Thames, between Westminster Bridge and a point at Blackfriars Bridge, where it unites with the City extension of the London, Chatham, and Dover Railway, authorized by an act of last session.

By the Charing Cross Railway (City Terminus) Bill, power is sought for constructing a branch across the Thames to terminate in Cannon-street in the City, forming a City terminus on the north side of the river for the South Eastern and other railways on the southern side, and affording means of communication for passengers between the present authorized terminus at Charing Cross and Cannon Street.

The Finsbury Circus Railway Station Bill provides for the formation of a joint station at Finsbury Circus for the Metropolitan and the Eastern Counties Railways, and the railways proposed by the two following bills would form the necessary links of communication, viz., *The Eastern Counties and Finsbury Railways Bill and the Metropolitan Railway (Extension to Finsbury Circus) Bill.

The East London Railway Bill authorizes a railway connecting the London and Blackwall Railway and the St. Katherine's Dock with the proposed Finsbury Circus Railway Station.

*The West End and City Railway Bill authorizes the construction of an underground railway from Regent's Circus, Piccadilly, to the Metropolitan Railway at Smithfield.

The North London (Branches to the City) Railway Bill opens up a means of communication between districts on the North London Railway and a point near Finsbury Circus by the branch railway proposed to be constructed as a viaduct.

By *the Regent's Canal Railway Bill, power is sought to construct a

SERIES D.

U U

[489]

railway along the towing-path of the Regent's Canal between Camden Town and the Thames at Limehouse.

By * the Metropolitan Railway (Western Extension) Bill, power is sought to extend the present line from Paddington to Kensington by an underground line across the Kensington Gardens.

By the Kensington Station and North and South London Junction Railway Bill, power is sought to extend the railway a short distance nearer to the site of the proposed exhibition of 1862.

The London, Buckinghamshire, and West Midland Railway Bill may be mentioned in connexion with these lines as affording a new railway terminus at Sloane Street. This railway, in passing through South Kensington, is proposed to be constructed as an underground line.

In their remarks upon this subject in 1854, and in subsequent sessions, my lords have observed that "in 1846 a royal commission was appointed to investigate and report upon the various projects for railways, which would be situated within or in the immediate vicinity of the metropolis. The limits to which the attention of the commission was confined were as follows, viz. : the Edgware-road from Oxford-street to the intersection with the New-road ; the New road and City road to Finsbury-square ; Bishopsgate-street to London Bridge ; High-street, Borough ; Blackman-street, Borough-road, Lambeth-road, Vauxhall-road, Vauxhall Bridge, Vauxhall Bridge-road, Grosvenor-place, and Park-lane.

"This Commission made several recommendations, of which the second bears particularly upon the schemes then under consideration, and also upon some of those of the present session, and is as follows, viz. :

"That if at any time hereafter it should be deemed advisable to admit railways within those limits, this should be done in conformity with some uniform plan, carefully laid down under the authority of your Majesty's Government, and sanctioned by the wisdom of Parliament ; and that under no circumstances should the thoroughfares of the metropolis, and the property and comfort of its inhabitants, be surrendered to separate schemes brought forward at different times, and without reference to each other.'

"It will be in the recollection of the general committee that, in 1842, a commission was appointed for inquiring into the most effectual means of improving the metropolis, over which the present Duke of Newcastle, then Chief Commissioner of Woods, presided. The commissioners inquired at great length, and with great particularity, into the best mode of improving the Thames as a means of communication both by water and upon quays, and also with a view to the beauty of the metropolis. If the committee shall be of opinion that the caution contained in the foregoing resolution of Lord Canning's commission ought to be observed in respect of this most important branch of the question of metropolitan railways, my lords would suggest, whether, in order to give effect to it, the committee would think it desirable to communicate more particularly with the present Chief Commissioner of Works."

My lords would further observe, that the best mode of diminishing the great pressure from street traffic which is now so frequently experienced in the metropolis would be, not to lead the traffic of several railways to a central station, but to provide railways for distributing the traffic intended for the metropolis at so many points in the metropolis as possible, and for rendering it unnecessary for the traffic which is intended to be carried to places beyond the metropolis from entering the streets.

PUBLIC GENERAL STATUTES.

24° & 25° VICTORIÆ.

SERIES D.—RAILWAYS, SHIPPING, PORTS OF COMMERCE.

GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND.

CAP. XLV.—*An Act to facilitate the Formation, Management, and Maintenance of Piers and Harbours in Great Britain and Ireland.* (1st August, 1861.)

Persons wishing to construct any works, or to levy rates at any existing or new works involving an expenditure not exceeding 100,000*l.*, may apply to Board of Trade to grant provisional order. The subscribers to the memorial must be the promoters, and they must deposit copies of the memorial and plans at the office of the clerk of the peace, there to remain open for public inspection. No provisional order to be made without the consent of the Commissioners of her Majesty's Woods, Forests, and Land Revenue. The Board of Trade may then grant provisional orders, and afterwards cause a bill to be introduced into Parliament for the purpose of obtaining an Act for the confirmation of the order.

CAP. LXXX.—*An Act to authorize Advance of Money out of the Consolidated Fund for carrying on Public Works and Fisheries for employment of the poor and for facilitating the Construction and Improvement of Harbours, and for other purposes.* (6th August, 1861.)

The Harbour Commissioners of the United Kingdom may charge 360,000*l.* per annum upon the Consolidated Fund, by issuing not exceeding 90,000*l.* per quarter, for advances already made under previous Act, and 350,000*l.* per annum at 87,500*l.* per quarter for advances under the Harbours and Passing Tolls Act, 1861. The Commissioners for the Reduction of the National Debt to be the trustees of Public Works Loan Fund, and to cause a separate account to be continued at the Bank of England for the purpose.

GREAT BRITAIN.

CAP. XLVII.—*An Act to facilitate the Construction and Improvement of Harbours by authorizing Loans to Harbour Authorities, to abolish Passing Tolls, and for other purposes.* (6th August, 1861.)

The Public Works Loan Commissioners may make advances to harbour authorities for the purpose of constructing, improving, maintaining, or lighting up any public harbour, or for carrying into effect any other shipping purpose, for a period not exceeding fifty years from the 1st of January, 1862. All tolls and rates known by the name of passing tolls leviable in respect of any harbours on ships, which pass, but do not enter, such harbours, or on goods carried in any such ships, to cease to be levied. Indemnity to be paid

[491]

to creditors of debts charged on the passing tolls abolished. All rates, dues, duties leviable by charitable authorities to cease to be levied. So dues levied for shipping purposes on ships or goods which derive no benefit. All differential dues to cease and be abolished, and compensation for the same to cease on the 1st of January, 1872. Power was granted to town corporations to transfer shipping dues to harbour authorities. All taxes on ships or goods carried in ships leviable within the port of Dublin to cease. Provision was made for the maintenance of Ramsgate, Dover, Whitby, and Bridlington harbours.

CAP. LXIV.—*An Act to continue certain Turnpike Acts in Great Britain.* (1st August, 1861.)

CAP. LXX.—*An Act for regulating the use of Locomotives on Turnpike and other roads, and the Tolls to be levied on such Locomotives, and on the Waggons and Carriages drawn or propelled by the same.* (1st August, 1861.)

The tolls charged on locomotives to be in proportion to the weight as compared with other waggons, carts, &c. The use of locomotives destructive to highways or dangerous to the public may be prohibited by the Secretary of State.

ENGLAND.

CAP. XXVIII.—*An Act to relieve certain Trusts on the Holyhead Road from Debts.* (11th July, 1861.)

CAP. XLVI.—*An Act to confirm certain provisional orders made under an Act of the fifteenth year of Her present Majesty to facilitate arrangements for the relief of Turnpike Trusts, and extend the provisions of the said Act.* (1st August, 1861.)

CAP. L.—*An Act for facilitating the Transfer of Mortgages and Bonds granted by Railway Companies in Scotland.* (1st August, 1861.)

Mortgages and bonds by railway companies, bearing a certain stamp duty, may be transferred by endorsement. The endorsement to exempt from stamp duty, and to have the effect of an assignment.

SCOTLAND.

CAP. LXIX.—*An Act to provide for the formation of Tramways on Turnpike and Statute Labour roads in Scotland.* (1st August, 1861.)

With a view to the formation of tramways on turnpike roads, special meeting of trustees may be called to consider the expediency of laying down tramways. The trustees may resort to their surveyors, or to an engineer to prepare plans of tramways and estimate of expense, and the expense to be defrayed out of the tolls and revenues of the road. And with respect to the formation of the same on statute labour roads, the trustees may authorize the same to be made, and the expenses to be defrayed, out of the funds and revenues under their management.

CAP. CII.—*An Act to amend the Tramways (Ireland) Act, 1860.* (6th August, 1861.)

[492]

COPYHOLD COMMISSION.

Copy of the Nineteenth Report of the Copyhold Commissioners.

DURING the year 1860 there were 714 enfranchisements effected; viz., 74 clerical, 57 collegiate, and 583 lay. Since 1841 there were 697 clerical, 181 collegiate, and 1,799 lay. Total, 2,677. The consideration for the enfranchisements was in 1860, 107,415*l.* payment in full, 805*l.* 15*s.* 1*d.* rent-charges; and 32 perches of land; making the total consideration since 1841, 489,934*l.* payment in full, 4,201*l.* 6*s.* 4*d.* rent-charges, and 1,337 acres 2 roods and 26 perches of land.

Besides these enfranchisements the Commissioners had also received 330 applications, of which 68 were under the voluntary, and 262 under the compulsory powers of the Acts.

The Commissioners further reported, that in pursuance of the powers vested in them by "The Universities and College Estates Act, 1858," they have authorized, during the year 1860, 45 sales, 6 enfranchisements, 3 purchases, 3 exchanges, and one application for raising money by way of mortgage.

INCLOSURE COMMISSION.

Report of the Inclosure Commissioners for the year 1861.

THE number of applications of all kinds since the passing of the Acts has been 3,355. The number of cases since the last annual report in 1860 is 329; viz., 50 inclosures, 259 exchanges, 15 partitions, 2 conversions into regulated pasture, 1 in reference to local acts, and 2 applications of money under Lands Clauses Consolidation or Railway Acts. Of the 3,355 applications 2,485 were confirmed, 383 were otherwise disposed of, and 487 in progress. Acreage of inclosure confirmed was 347,943 acres, and the acreage of inclosure in progress is 194,347.

The Commissioners received the necessary consents to several inclosures. The average expense of the inclosure proceedings up to the time of the assents to the provisional orders, including any expense which may have attended these assents, and which leaves the case ready for Parliament to deal with, is 15*l.* 18*s.* 7*d.*

TURNPIKE TRUSTS.

General Report, made by the Direction of the Secretary of State, under Act 3 & 4 Wm. IV. cap. 80.

THE financial condition of the trusts in England in 1858 was better than in former years. The receipts amounted to 1,083,410*l.*, the expenditure

1,070,838*l.*, and the bonded debt was 4,980,130*l.*, with an unpaid interest of 783,191*l.* Since 1837 the bonded debt diminished from 7,011,989*l.* to 490,130*l.* The toll income has also decreased from 1,509,985*l.* in 1837 to 1,020,656*l.* in 1858, and the expenditure from 1,742,237*l.* in 1837 to 1,070,838*l.* in 1858. In South Wales the receipt in 1858 amounted to 38,814*l.*, against 35,743*l.* in 1849, and the expenditure amounted to 38,466*l.*, against 36,298*l.* in 1849. The Public Works Commissioners' debt amounted on the 1st January, 1859, to 146,538*l.*, being 70,481*l.* less than in 1858.

LUNACY.

An Account of all Monies received and paid by the Secretary of the Commissioners in Lunacy, and of all Charges and Expenses incurred under or by virtue of the Act 8 & 9 Vic. cap. 100. s. 34, during the Year ending 31st July, 1861. (16.)

The receipts less balance on last amount of 222*l.* amounted to 14,638*l.*, and the payments, 14,384*l.* 14*s.* 3*d.*, after having paid into the Bank of England on account of the Paymaster-General 1,128*l.* 5*s.*; leaving a balance on hand of 233*l.* 13*s.*

PUBLIC GENERAL STATUTES.

24° VICTORIÆ.

SERIES H.—HEALTH, ENCLOSURES, &c.

ENGLAND.

CAP. XXIV.—*An Act for confirming a Scheme of the Charity Commissioners for the Hospital of Lady Katherine Leveson at Temple Balsall, in the county of Warwick.* (28th June, 1861.)

CAP. XXXII.—*An Act for confirming a Scheme of the Charity Commissioners for "the Hospital of the Blessed Trinity," at Guildford, in the county of Surrey, and its subsidiary endowments, with certain alterations.* (11th July, 1861.)

CAP. LVII.—*An Act to continue an Act of the 5th and 6th years of Her Majesty, relating to Private Lunatic Asylums in Ireland.* (1st August, 1861.)

CAP. LIX.—*An Act to facilitate proceedings before Justices under the Acts relating to Vaccination.* (1st August, 1861.)

The guardians of any union or parish may appoint some person to conduct proceedings for the purpose of enforcing Acts on Vaccination, and all expenses incurred to be payable out of the rates for the relief of the poor of the parish where the person for the time being dwells in respect of whose default or offence the same were instituted.

CAP. CXXXIII. *An Act to amend the Law relating to the Drainage of Land for Agricultural purposes.* (6th August, 1861.)

Commissions of sewers may be issued for new areas on the recommendation of inclosure commissions. And the recommendation of the Inclosure Commissioners to be obtained on petition of proprietors after investigation by an inspector. The powers of the Commissioners of Sewers to extend to the following acts:—

To cleansing, repairing, or otherwise maintaining in a due state of efficiency any existing watercourse or outfall for water, or any existing wall or other defence against water, hereinafter referred to under the expression "maintenance of existing works." To deepening, widening, straightening, or otherwise improving any existing watercourse or outfall

[495]

for water, or removing mill dams, weirs, or other obstructions to water-courses or outfalls for water, or raising, widening, or otherwise altering any existing wall or other defence against water, hereinafter referred to under the expression "improvement of existing works." To making any new watercourse or new outfall for water, or erecting any new defence against water, to erecting any machinery or doing any other act not hereinbefore referred to, required for the drainage, necessary supply of water for cattle, warping or irrigation of the area comprised within the limits of their jurisdiction, hereinafter referred to under the expression "the construction of new works." Provided,—That no person shall by virtue of this Act be compelled to execute at his own expense any works which he would not have been compelled to execute if this Act had not passed. That no work shall be deemed to be a new work that is in substitution for an old one, in cases where such old work is so much out of repair or so inefficient as to make it expedient to construct a new work in place thereof. That full compensation shall be made for all injury sustained by any person by reason of the exercise by the commissioners of the above powers. That the exercise of the foregoing powers shall be subject to the restrictions hereinafter mentioned.

The commissioners shall not be entitled to remove or otherwise interfere with any mill dam, weir, or other like obstruction, whereby the level of the water is raised for any milling or other purpose of profit, so as to injuriously affect the supply of water, otherwise than with the consent of the owner of such mill dam, weir, or other like obstruction, until the following things have been done; that is to say,—Their right to do so has been determined in manner hereinafter mentioned:—Compensation to be made to all parties entitled for the injury which may have been caused by such removal or interference, with the consent of the commissioners, by any persons or body of persons being proprietors of not less than one-tenth part in acreage, of any bog, moor, or any other area of land; and the superintendence of matters relating to drainage within such a district to be vested in a drainage board. Power was also given to private owners to procure outfalls or new drains by obtaining the assent of the adjoining owner.

The commissioners have power to levy rates for defraying all costs, charges, and expenses incurred by them under the authority of the Act when the rate is for some improvement or new work involving an expenditure of more than 1,000*l.*; the same is to be a special rate and to be deemed to be a tax on the owners of property; and when any owner of any land makes default in paying the amount of any rate, the amount may be levied upon and payment enforced against the occupier of such land and his goods and chattels. The commissioners have power to borrow money on such rates. The commissioners have no power to interfere with sewers and other works already made, with any river canal, dock, harbours, &c., with any works or supply of water, or to execute any works under any wharves, quays, docks, harbours, &c., without the consent of the corporation or other body acting on that behalf. Drainage districts may be formed.

I N D E X.

. Throughout the work the paging of the Series is at the head, and the paging of the Volume at the bottom.

	Series	Volume
	Page	Page
A.		
Series A.—Agricultural Labourers, Rates of Earnings of	88	300
Statistics of Ireland, Estimated Averages of Produce in	54	186
Report on	97	357
Animals, Number imported of, in 1861	33	53
Army Expenditure, Amount of	80	212
Australia, Value of Exports of, in 1861	40	60
B.—Age of Appointment to the Diplomatic Service	2	2
Army and Navy, Number of Effectives in the	56	292
Attachés, Mode of Appointment of	3	3
F.—Antigua, Report on the State of	411	143
Australia, Statistical Account of	441	457

B.		
A.—Bank of England, Correspondence of the Chancellor of Exchequer with	85	297
Statute on Payments to	141	481
Bonded Warehouses, Quantity of Goods remaining in, Dec. 31, 1861	38	58
British Guiana, Value of Exports to, in 1861	40	60
Possessions,	40	60
B.—Barracks and Hospitals, Report of Commissioners on	96	428
C.—Belfast, Report of Queen's College in	415	47
British Museum, Report on Illuminating with Gas the	421	485
D.—British Columbia, Progress of	289	113
E.—Bankruptcy Court, Revenue and Expenditure of	264	180
Law, England, Statute on	268	472
F.—Bahamas, Report on the State of	408	140
Barbadoes,	410	142
Statistical Account of	440	456
Bengal Presidency, Moral and Material Progress of	387	119
Bermuda, Statistical Account of	438	454
Bombay Presidency, Moral and Material Progress of	396	128
British Guiana, Report on the State of	410	142
Statistical Account of	440	456
Q.—Births, Deaths, and Marriages, Ireland, Report of Committee on	238	418
Business of the House of Commons, Report on	193	253

C.		
A.—China, Value of British Exports to, in 1861	40	60
Civil List Pensions, Amount of	49	181
Cocoa, Quantity imported of	35	55
Coffee	35	55
Copper, Exports and Imports of	81	293
Copyright of Design, Statute on	142	482
Corn, Amount of Customs Revenue from	41	61
Quantity imported of	34	54
Value of Imports of	34	54

INDEX.

	SERIES	VOLUME
	Page	Page
SERIES A.—Cotton Manufactures, Value of Exports of	36	57
Raw, Quantity imported of, in 1861	33	53
Value of Imports of	34	54
Yarn, Quantity and Value of Exports of	36	56
Customs and Inland Revenue, Statute on	142	482
Gross Produce of Revenue from, in 1861	41	61
„ B.—China, Convention with the Emperor of	87	331
Correspondence on	59	303
Treaty of Friendship and Commerce with	79	323
Cuban Slave Trade, Despatch on	57	301
„ C.—Church Estates, Report of Commissioners on	422	487
Civil Service Commissioners, Sixth Report of	397	29
Examination for the	400	32
Cork, Report of Queen's College in	416	48
„ E.—Convict Discipline, Report on	237	153
Prisons, Report of Directors of	237	153
Coroners, Report of Committee on the Law relating to the Duties of	233	25
Criminal Laws, Statutes for Consolidating the	267	471
„ F.—Canada, Report on the State of	415	147
Statistical Tables of	438	454
Cape of Good Hope, Statistical Accounts of	442	458
Ceylon, Report on the State of	417	149
Statistical Accounts of	442	458
Colonial Possessions, Statistical Tables relating to	437	453
„ G.—Charity Commissioners, Report of	216	276
Census of England and Wales, Tables of	203	263
Ireland	208	268
Scotland	213	273
Conjugal Rights, Scotland, Statute on	247	467
County Voters, Statute on	247	467
„ H.—Copyhold, Report of Commissioners of	109	493

D.

„ B.—Diplomatic Service, Cost of	4	4
Report on	1	1
Dockyards, System of Control and Management of	11	11
„ E.—Divorce Bills, and Petitions to the House of Lords	262	178
Divorce and Matrimonial Causes, Number of	229	21
„ F.—Dominica, Report on the State of	412	144
„ G.—Drunkenness, Statute on	248	468
„ H.—Drainage of Land, Statute on	111	495

E.

„ A.—England, Amount of Income-tax charged in	46	66
Property and Income charged in	46	66
Proportion of Representatives to Population in	44	64
Revenue to Population in	44	64
Exchequer, Amount of Money paid to the Account of the	81	293
Excise and Stamps, Statute on	144	484
Quantity and Articles charged with	52	62
Expenditure and Income, Amount of	79	211
Exports, Value of, in each Month of 1861	38	58
„ B.—Examination for the Diplomatic Service, Regulation of	4	4
„ C.—Education Grants, Expenditure for the Year up to 31st Dec., 1860	405	37
Report of Committee of Privy Council on	403	35
on Dissenters' Schools to Commissioners on	406	38
„ D.—Emigration, Report of Commissioners on	287	111
„ E.—East India (see India)		
„ G.—England and Wales, Population of, in 1861	203	263

F.

„ A.—Factories, Report of Inspectors of	137	477
Fire Insurance, Amount of Duty on	45	65
Fires in the Metropolis, Report on	104	364

INDEX.

	SERIES	VOLUME
	Page	Page
SERIES B.— Forage, Explanation of the Estimates for	55	291
Foreign Office, Constitution of	5	5
Fortification, Account of Money expended for	56	292

G.

"	A.—Gold and Silver, Value of Imports and Exports of, in 1861	39	59
"	Guarantee of Money in Companies, Report on	53	185
"	C.—Galway, Report of Queen's College in	413	45
"	F.—Gambia, Report on the State of	415	147
	Statistical Account of	442	458
	Gibraltar	442	458
	Grenada, Report on the State of	410	142

H.

"	A.—Holland, Value of British Exports to, in 1861	.	.	.	40	60
	Hanse Towns	.	.	.	40	60
"	F.—Honduras, Report on the State of	.	.	.	407	139
"	G.—House of Commons, Report of Committee on Business of	.	.	.	193	253

I.

"	A.—Imports, Value of, in each Month in 1861	35	55
	Income, Definition of	180	390
	Income and Expenditure for the Years ended 31st March, 1860-61.	78	210
	Account of, for the Year ended 30th September, 1861	89	349
	Property-tax, Amount of	90	350
	" " In the Year ended March 31, 1861	55	187
	Defects of present Acts on	79	211
	Means for evading	46	66
	Report of Committee on	113	373
	India, Value of British Exports to	129	389
	Inland Revenue, Report of Commissioners on	118	370
	Statute on	40	60
	Ionian Islands, Value of British Exports to	45	65
	Ireland, Amount of Income-tax charged in	143	483
	Property and Income charged in	40	60
	Proportion of Representatives to Population in	46	66
	of Revenue to Population in	44	64
	Iron, Quantity and Value of Exports of	44	64
"	C.—India Civil Service, Examination for	37	57
	Industrial Schools, Statute on	400	32
	Ireland, Report on National Education in Ireland	423	487
"	E.—Table of Persons committed or held to Bail in	418	50
"	F.—India, Annual Salaries of Principal Officers	281	23
	College and Schools of	418	330
	Correspondence on Honours bestowed on Native Princes	437	453
	Expenditure for Public Works in	435	347
	Number of Post Offices in	387	119
	Finances of	387	119
	Imports and Exports of	437	453
	Moral and Material Progress of	437	453
	Number of Civil Suits in	385	117
	Crimes in	389	120
	Prisoners	390	122
	Public Debt of	391	123
	Report of Indigo Commission in Bengal	437	453
	on Railways in	426	338
	Statistical Tables of	421	333
	Statute on Council of Governor-General	437	453
	Judicature in	440	460
"	G.—Ireland, Population of, in 1861	440	460
"	H.—Inclosure Commission, Report of Commissioners of	208	268
		109	493

INDEX.

		SERIES	VOLUME
		Page	Page
J.			
SERIES E.—Judicial Statistics, Ireland		231	23
„ Scotland		230	22
„ F.—Jamaica, Report on the State of		406	138
L.			
„ A.—Lace Manufacture, Report on Regulations for the		82	294
„ Land and Assessed Tax, Amount of Revenue of		45	65
„ Legacy and Succession Tax, Amount of		45	65
„ Linen Yarn and Manufacture, Quantity and Value of Exports in 1861		36	56
„ E.—Law of Foreign Countries, Statute for ascertaining		267	471
„ H.—Lunacy, Account of Money expended by Commissioners of		110	494
„ Report of Commissioners of the Lord Chancellor		100	244
„ Report of Commissioners of for Scotland		97	241
M.			
„ A.—Machinery, Quantity and Value of Exports of		37	57
„ Malt, Quantity of charged with Duties		42	62
„ B.—Mexico, Correspondence on British Claims on		41	277
„ Morocco Loan, Convention on		55	291
„ Mutiny, Statute on		120	452
„ E.—Municipal Corporation, Statute on		244	446
„ F.—Madras Presidency, Moral and Material Progress of		394	126
„ Mauritius, Report on the State of		412	144
N.			
„ A.—National Debt, Amount of Interest for		80	212
„ Navy Expenditure, Amount of		80	212
„ North American Colonies, Exports to in 1861		40	60
„ Norway, Value of British Exports to in 1861		40	60
„ B.—Naval Yards, Report of Commissioners on		11	11
„ Navy, Statute on the Government of		119	451
„ Steam and Sailing Ships, Number of		56	292
„ C.—National Education in Ireland, Report on		418	50
„ F.—Natal, Statistical Account of		442	458
„ Nevis, Report on the State of		412	144
„ Statistical Account of		439	455
„ New Brunswick, Statistical Account of		438	454
„ Newfoundland		438	454
„ New Zealand, Report on the State of		417	149
„ Statistical Account of		441	417
„ North American Colonies, Ecclesiastical Establishments of		420	152
„ Nova Scotia, Statistical Account of		438	454
O.			
„ A.—Ordnance Survey, Report on		102	362
„ F.—Oude, Moral and Material Progress of		401	133
P.			
„ A.—Paper, Quantity of, charged with Excise		42	62
„ Quantity made of		96	356
„ Patents for Invention, Report of Commissioners on		47	67
„ Portugal, Value of Exports to		40	60
„ Property insured from Fire, Amount of		45	65
„ Prussia, Value of Exports to		40	60
„ B.—Poland, Correspondence with the Government of Russia on, 1831-32		47	283
„ Prince Talleyrand, on		33	291

INDEX.

SERIES		SERIES	VOLUME
		Page	Page
C.—	Parochial Schools, Scotland, Statute on	424	488
" D.—	Piers and Harbours, Statute on	295	491
" E.—	Prisoners, Number of, on 1st May, 1861	229	21
" F.—	Prince Edward's Island, Statistical Account of	438	454
" Q.—	Poor Law, England, Report of Committee on	217	397
	Population of England and Wales in 1861	203	263
	Ireland "	208	268
	Scotland "	213	273
	Population and Poor Rates in England and Wales	241	461
	Public Business of the House of Lords, Report of Committee on	231	411

Q.

" C.—	Queen's College, Belfast, Report on	405	47
	Cork, "	416	48
	Galway, "	412	44
" F.—	Queensland, Report on the State of	416	148
	Statute on the Authority of the Legislature in	443	459

R.

" A.—	Rags, Price of	95	355
	Report of Committee on Export Duties on	91	351
	Revenue and Population in England, Proportion of	44	64
	Ireland "	44	64
	Scotland "	44	64
	Russia, Amount of British Exports to	40	60
" D.—	Railway and Canal Bills, Report on	298	489
" E.—	Reformatory Schools, Report of Inspector of	265	469
" F.—	Railways in India, Report on	421	333
" Q.—	Removal of the Poor, Statute on	245	465

S.

" A.—	Salmon Fisheries, Report of Commissioners on	56	188
	Savings' Banks, Return of	43	63
	Number of Depositors in	44	64
	Scotland, Amount of Income-tax in	46	66
	Property charged to Income-tax in	46	66
	Proportion of Revenue to Population in	44	64
	Representatives to Population in	44	64
	Silk Manufacture, Quantity and Value exported of	37	57
	Raw, Quantity imported of, in 1861	33	53
	Spain, Amount of British Exports to in 1861	40	60
	Spices Raw, Quantity imported of in 1861	33	53
	Spirits, Number of Gallons distilled of	87	299
	Raw, Quantity imported of in 1861	34	54
	Quantity of charged with Excise Duties	42	62
	Rates of Duties on, from 1825 to 1860	45	65
	Stamp Duties, Amount of Revenue from	79	211
	Produce of Year ended 31st March, 1861	46	65
	Sugar, Quantity imported and consumed of, Foreign	146	480
	Raw, Quantity imported of, in 1861	34	54
	Sweden, Amount of British Exports to, in 1861	40	60
" B.—	Schleswig and Holstein, Correspondence on	107	439
	Ships of the Line, Cost of Repairs of	18	18
	Slave Trade, Correspondence of British Commissioners of	89	421
	with British Ministers	94	426
" D.—	Shipping, Returns for the Year ended 31st December, 1861	291	115
" E.—	Scotland, Tables of Criminal Offenders of	230	22
" F.—	St. Kitts, Report on the State of	412	144
	St. Lucia, "	411	143
	St. Vincent "	411	143
	South Australia "	417	149
" Q.—	Scotland, Population of, in 1861	213	273
" H.—	Sewage of Towns, Report of Commissioners on	89	233

[501]

INDEX.

		SERIES	VOLUME
		Page	Page
T.			
SERIES A.—Tea, Amount of Customs Revenue from, for the Year ended 31st			
March, 1861		41, 79	61, 211
Quantity imported of, in 1861		34	54
Value of Imports of in 1861		34	54
Timber, Amount of Customs Revenue for the Year ended 31st March,			
1861		41, 79	61, 211
Quantity Imported of in 1861		34	54
Value of Imports of in 1861		34	54
Tobacco, Quantity imported of in 1861		34	54
Value of Imports of in 1861		35	55
Trade of the United Kingdom, Account of, in the Year ended			
31st Dec., 1861		33	53
" B.—Turkey, Papers on Administrative and Financial Reforms in		21	213
" C.—Tithe Commissioners, Report of		411	43
" D.—Telegraphic Cables, Report of Committee on		245	69
Lines, Account of		245	69
Tramways, Scotland, Statute on		296	492
" E.—Ticket of Leave System, Working of		237	153
" F.—Tasmania, Report on the State of		417	149
Tobago, Report		411	143
Statistical Account of		440	456
Trinidad, Report on the State of		409	141
Statistical Account of		440	456
Turk's Island, Report on the State of		409	141
Statistical Account of		439	455
" G.—Thames Embankment, Report of Commissioners on		233	413
" H.—Turnpike Trusts, General Report on		109	493

U.

" A.—United States of America, Value of Exports to in 1861	40	60
--	----	----

V.

" B.—Volunteer Force, Statute on	120	422
" F.—Victoria, Report on the State of	416	148
Virgin Islands, Report on the State of	412	144

W.

" A.—West India Colonies, Value of British Exports to	40	60
Wine, Quantity imported of in 1861	34	54
Value of Imports of in "	35	55
Wool, Quantity imported of in 1861	33	53
Wool, Value of Imports of in 1861	35	55
Woollen Manufactures and Yarn, Quantity and Value exported of	38	58
" C.—Wills of Personal Estates, Statute on	244	464
" F.—Western Australia, Report on the State of	417	149

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